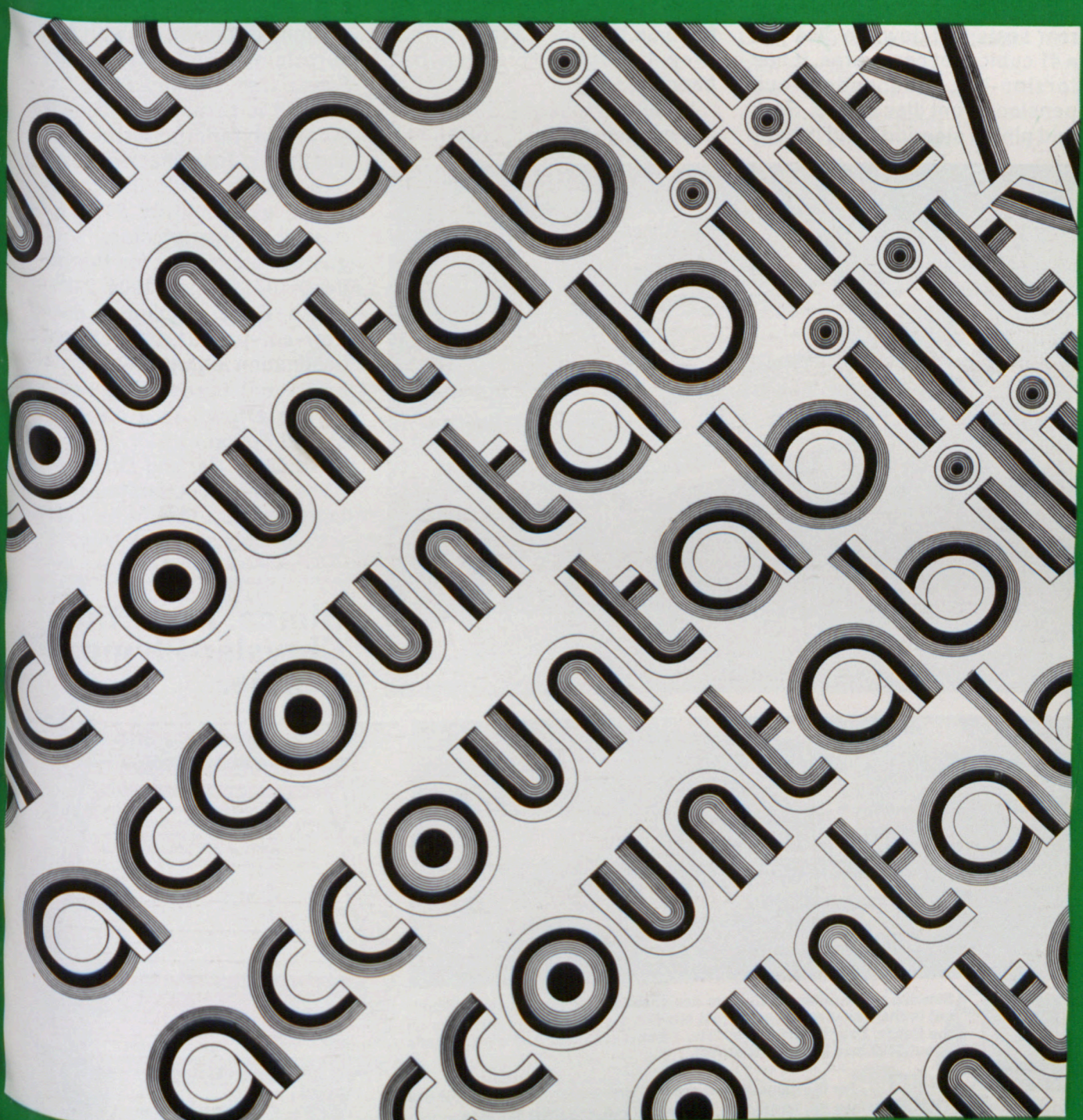
MARCH 1971 THE JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Today's Education



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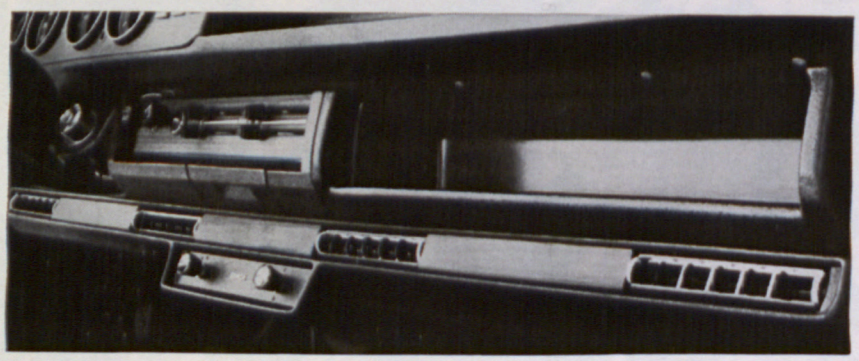

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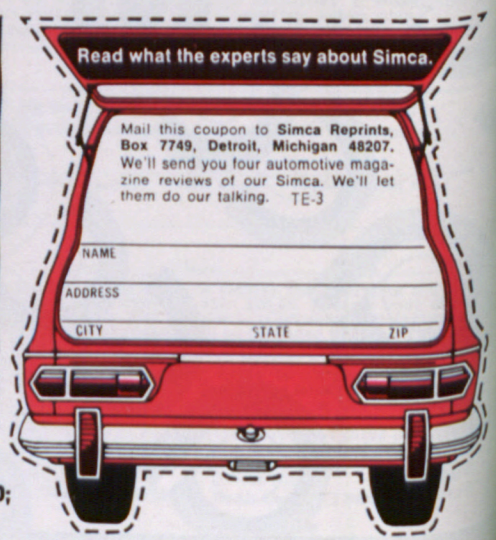
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Today's Education

THE JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Volume 60, Number 3, March 1971

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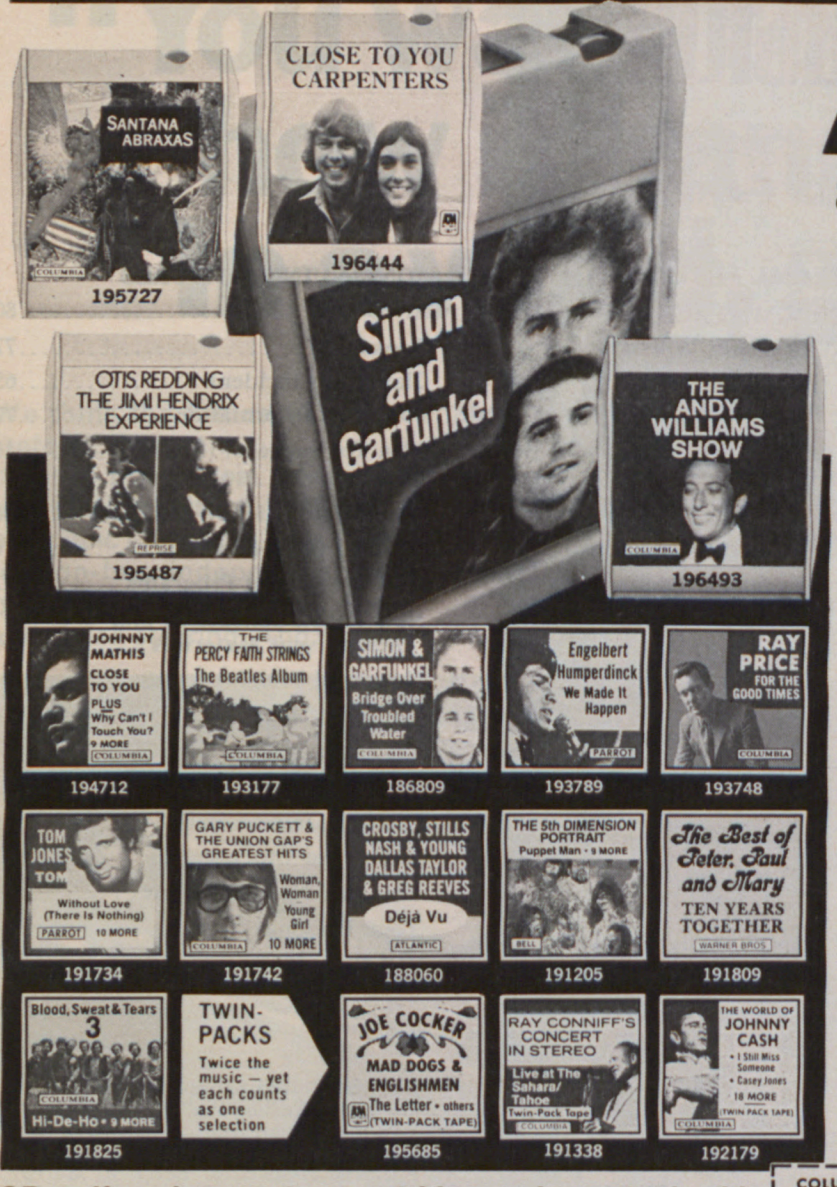
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Teacher Corps and Peace Corps Plan a Combined Training Program

White House Youth Conference Set

Wisconsin Court Exempts Amish from High School Attendance

State Law on Teaching Evolution Thrown Out by Mississippi Court

U.S. Catholic School Enrollment Drops 10 Percent in Three Years

Study Urges Indian Involvement in Educational Decision Making

NEWS AND TRENDS

Teacher Corps and Peace Corps Plan a Combined Training Program

The Teacher Corps and the Peace Corps have announced a cooperative plan to train teachers for innovative education programs in the United States and in developing nations. Under the plan, a young person will spend one year in the Teacher Corps at home and two years in a Peace Corps country overseas. The combined service will lead to a master's degree for the participants, most of whom will specialize in mathematics and the sciences.

The first participants will begin their Teacher Corps service in the summer of 1971 and will be ready for Peace Corps duty in the fall of 1972.

White House Youth Conference Set

Some 1,000 youth and 500 adults are expected to participate in the White House Conference on Youth, which is to be held April 18-22 in Estes Park, Colorado.

Wisconsin Court Exempts Amish from High School Attendance

The Wisconsin Supreme Court has ruled that because of their religious beliefs, Amish children are exempt, after completing the eighth grade, from the state's compulsory school attendance law. The Amish sect, generally, considers education beyond the eighth grade an intrusion into the simplicity of its religious concepts.

The Wisconsin court said that, although education is subject to regulation by the state, there is not such a compelling state interest in compulsory high school education to justify the burden it places upon free exercise of religion. The attorney for the Amish fathers who refused to send their children to school called the ruling "a landmark decision in favor of religious liberty."

State Law on Teaching Evolution Thrown Out by Mississippi Court

Mississippi's law against the teaching of evolution has been overturned by the state's supreme court, thus ending such state laws in the nation.

The Mississippi court referred to the U.S. Supreme Court decision regarding a similar law in Arkansas. [NEA participated as a "friend of the court" in the effort to strike down the Arkansas statute.] "It is clear to us," the Mississippi court said, "that the Supreme Court of the United States has for all practical purposes already held that our anti-evolution statutes are unconstitutional."

U.S. Catholic School Enrollment Drops 10 Percent in Three Years

U.S. Catholic school enrollment has declined 10 percent since 1967, according to a statistical study released recently by the National Catholic Educational Association. The total number of Catholic elementary and secondary schools has decreased by about 7 percent, from 12,814 in 1967-68 to 11,937 in 1969-70, the report shows.

While enrollment decreased, operating costs for Catholic schools have increased by $200 million since 1967 to $1.4 billion in 1969-70. At the same time, the total number of nuns, priests, and brothers teaching in Catholic schools has declined about 12 percent. This decline was a financial blow to the Catholic schools, the report notes, since their "contributed services" totaled an estimated $424 million during 1967-68, $433 million during 1968-69, and $429 million in 1969-70.

Study Urges Indian Involvement in Educational Decision Making

Decision making about Indian education and the implementation of these decisions should be increasingly in the hands of Indians. This summarizes the findings of a recently completed National Study of American Indian Education.

"It appears to us that the basic problem of Indian education cannot be solved unless definite steps are immediately taken in this direction," said Robert J. Havighurst of the University of Chicago, who directed the $515,000 study for the U.S. Office of Education.

The three-year study covered Indian students in grades 1 through 12 in 39 public, private, and federal government school systems in 14 states from Alaska to North Carolina. Parents were also interviewed.

Principal recommendations of the study are: provide for greater Indian influence on education programs; give added responsibility and greater powers to the two Indian Education Advisory Committees already in existence and made up entirely of Indians; provide federal and state funds for special educational programs in all cities with 100 or more Indian children and youth of school age; develop curriculums compatible with Indian needs to retain identity, pride, and

School Racial Incidents Declining, FBI Director Says in Report

Survey Indicates 1 in 10 Able High School Students Uses Marijuana

ROTC Enrollment Down 100,000 to Lowest Level Since 1947

Computers for Learning Now in Use in 13 Percent of Secondary Schools

Number of All-White Private Schools Increased in South to Over 700

Union Says That Child Labor Is on the Increase

College Closed By Student Strike Must Refund Tuition

NEA Reporter Gives Association News

self-respect, including bilingual programs, Indian history and culture, and career development; increase in-service training for teachers who have Indian pupils; and create a privately financed National Commission on Indian Education.

School Racial Incidents Declining, FBI Director Says in Report

The number and intensity of racial incidents in schools is declining, according to the annual report of FBI Director J. Edgar Hoover.

He said that the number of racial disorders in secondary schools dropped from 299 in the first four months of the 1969-70 school year to 160 during the same period this school year. Further, he stated, racial disorders in 1970 did not reach the level of the riots of the 1960's.

Survey Indicates 1 in 10 Able High School Students Uses Marijuana

One of every 10 high achieving high school students recently surveyed said they currently used marijuana; 1 in 33 approved the use of hard drugs by high school students. Three out of four students said they believed that marijuana use could lead to the use of other drugs.

The survey of attitudes of high school high achievers on major issues was conducted by the publishers of *Merit's Who's Who Among American High School Students.* It covered more than 22,000 (about 35 percent) of the juniors and seniors selected—by school recommendation or by performance in national scholarship or award contests—for listing in the 1969-70 edition of the publication. The 22,000 students covered by the survey were those in the listing who had responded in time to the publisher's requests for information.

ROTC Enrollment Down 100,000 to Lowest Level Since 1947

ROTC enrollment fell by more than 100,000 in the past two years to the lowest level since 1947, U.S. Defense Department officials report. The Department said it hopes to stimulate future enrollment with legislative proposals this year designed to double the number of ROTC scholarships and to reimburse colleges and universities for their costs of supporting the officer training programs.

The decline in enrollment, officials said, is based on student opposition to the war and a "wait and see" attitude about the draft and the President's proposals for an all-volunteer force. Only 48 institutions now make ROTC enrollment compulsory, compared with 112 two years ago.

Computers for Learning Now in Use in 13 Percent of Secondary Schools

Computers are now in use for learning in 13 percent of U.S. secondary schools recently surveyed. The survey, made by the American Institutes for Research, also revealed that more than 30 percent of the schools surveyed use computers for administrative purposes, and the main reason a majority of schools operate without them is the high cost of these technological aids.

Number of All-White Private Schools Increased in South to Over 700

The number of private, all-white schools in the South nearly doubled this year, according to a *New York Times* survey, but, the *Times* says, the movement to these schools may have reached its peak.

The *Times* estimated that about 300 such schools opened for the 1970-71 school year, bringing the total to more than 700 that have been set up in the last five years.

Union Says That Child Labor Is on the Increase

Child labor is increasing and as many as 75,000 children may now be working during school hours or in hazardous occupations, the AFL-CIO reports. The union's Department of Research said it bases this judgment on the fact that the U.S. Labor Department reported a 15 percent increase in the last fiscal year in violations of federal laws limiting, among other things, child labor.

An AFL-CIO spokesman said the rise in violations is "a symptom of our current economic downturn," with employers cutting corners to make better profits and "employing children because they can get them at rates lower than they can employ adults."

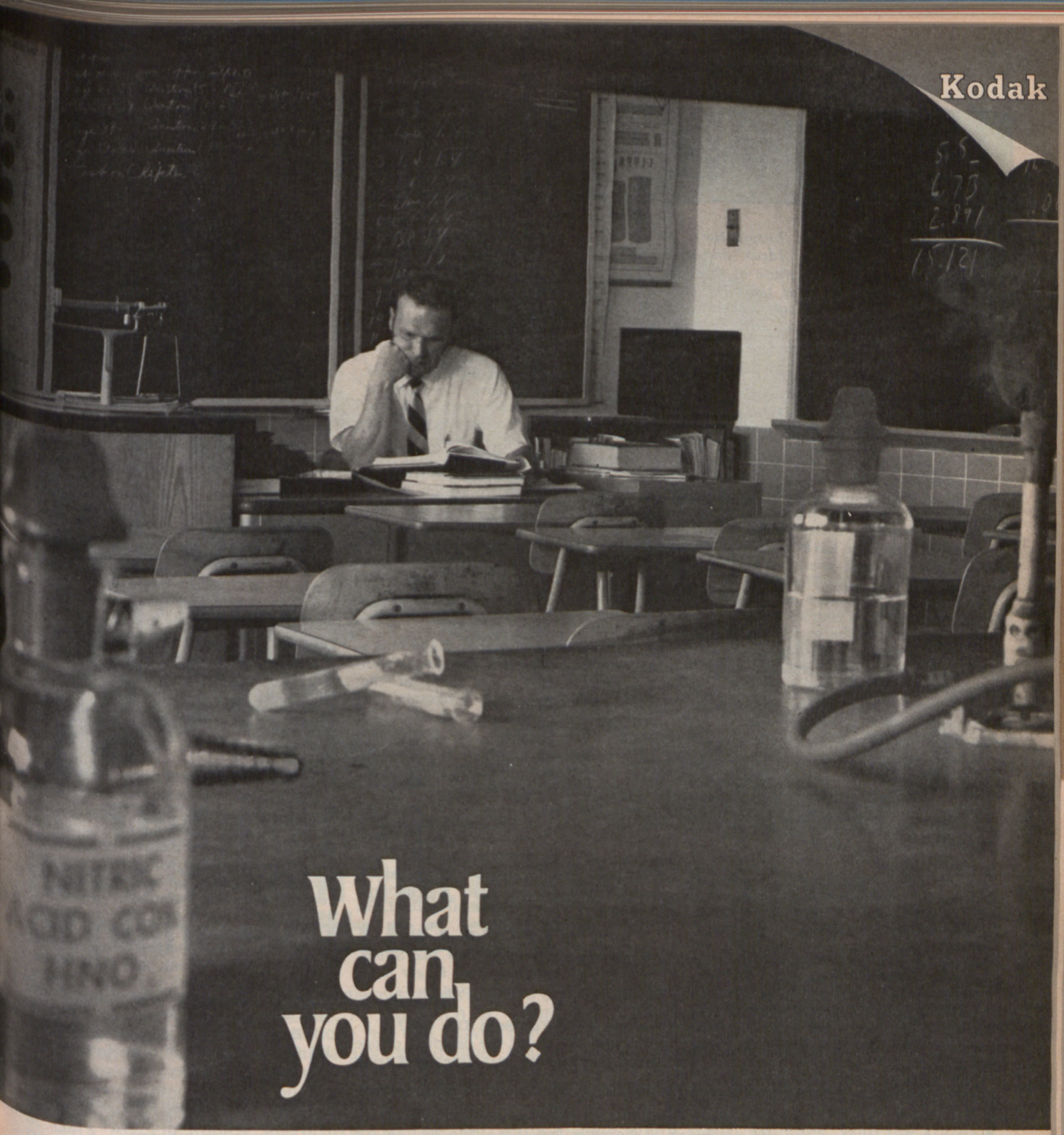
College Closed By Student Strike Must Refund Tuition

A New York City judge has ruled that New York University must make a partial tuition refund because the college was closed for 19 days during student demonstrations. The judge of the city's Small Claims Court ruled that the university had breached its contract and had not "made a good-faith attempt to solve genuine and long-standing problems within its own college communities."

The university is appealing.

NEA Reporter Gives Association News

For news and trends in local, state, and national education associations, see current issues of the *NEA Reporter,* sent to every NEA member.



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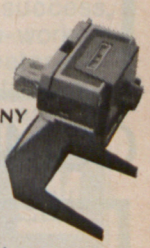

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This feature is an open forum for TODAY'S EDUCATION *readers. Ideas and opinions expressed here are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. (When writing, please indicate school, position, and home address, including ZIP Code.)*

Student Teaching

Charles Silberman's article on student teaching (January) was both timely and controversial; we should have more like this.

After 19 years of social studies teaching, I am acting as a college supervisor of student teaching while on a leave of absence from my regular job. The plan being tried here at Oneonta is to rotate this position annually in order to have a supervisor who is close to and aware of current social studies teaching. There are problems: Traveling 1,400 miles is one; trying to help with methods courses is another.

As mentioned in the article, a search for better methods is continuing. As an experiment, Albany has resident college supervisors in several of its schools. A University of New Hampshire professor tells me that his institution is trying to have local schools assume the responsibility for student teaching supervision. These duties are being sweetened with financial rewards.

—Raymond A. Antil, *associate professor, State University College, Oneonta, New York.*

I saw "red" almost from the beginning as I leafed through the January issue and spotted Mr. Silberman's article ("Even Student Teaching Is Dismal"), and as I read on in the article, my blood pressure continued to rise.

I haven't read the book and I realize it is so easy to sit back and criticize when one hasn't walked in the shoes of the one he is judging. Nevertheless, I must react to Mr. Silberman's statements in the JOURNAL.

My 44 years of teaching gave me what I feel was a very fortunate experience because I have had student teachers from universities, teachers colleges, and the small liberal arts colleges. The students' preparation was just as varied. I feel the university does the poorest; teachers colleges, the best.

I disagree that the public schools would do worse—at least the teachers have had the experience with children, which very few of the college supervisors have had.

Incidentally, I'm convinced that student teaching should come earlier so that students could still switch career plans if they find that teaching isn't their cup of tea.

Another comment I might make is that the college supervisor and the teacher supervisor should meet more often.

—Louisa E. Peak, *retired teacher, Cedar Rapids, Iowa.*

I agree completely with Silberman's observations on student teaching. From my observation, I'd say most of the present student-teaching programs are going in circles so far as advancement of quality instruction is concerned. Teachers have a tendency to teach as they were taught; student teachers have a tendency to teach as their supervising teacher teaches.

At no place do we take off at any tangent to this circle. It appears that a centripetal force is far greater than the centrifugal force when it comes to making progress in improvement of instruction.

—Virgil H. Judge, *president, Lake Land College, Mattoon, Illinois.*

◆ *Additional responses to the Silberman article, including some longer ones, will appear in the April issue.*

Teacher, Have You Seen This Girl?

Suzanne Elizabeth, the daughter of one of my constituents, was kidnapped from her California home in 1965, a few days after this picture was taken on her fifth birthday. For the past five years, the authorities have searched unsuccessfully for the child.

We are now soliciting your help with the thought that some teacher may recognize Suzanne, now 10 years old. Anyone knowing or suspecting the whereabouts of the child should contact me promptly and in the strictest confidence.

—Congressman Paul N. McCloskey, Jr., *House Office Building, Washington, DC 20515.*

Heroes and Nonheroes

Having read "Youth's Heroes Have No Haloes" (February), I just checked back to the January 8 issue of *Life*, which reports on a survey of a cross section of the 26 million Americans who are between the ages of 15 and 21. According to this report, recently completed by Louis Harris and Associates, the four well-known people most admired by the respondents were Robert F. Kennedy, Bill Cosby, Neil Armstrong, and John Wayne. Those least admired were Fidel Castro, Eldridge Cleaver, George Wallace, and Ho Chi Minh.

—Barbara J. Puls, *teacher of English, Washington-Lee High School, Arlington, Virginia.*

I would like to call your attention to the following item from *The Times* of London (December 2, 1970).

"M. Daniel Jaussard, aged 20, a student teacher at the École Normale de Digne, France, was awarded a trip round the world as first prize in a competition to select the 25 greatest heroes in history yesterday.

"His selection, in alphabetical order was: Avicenna (Islamic philosopher), Bolivar, Buddha, Charlemagne, Marie Curie, Henri Dunant, Einstein, Erasmus, St. Francis of Assisi, Galen, Gandhi, Gutenberg, Hippocrates, Jesus Christ, Martin Luther King, Lincoln, Marx, Michelangelo, Sir Thomas More, Pasteur,

(*Continued on page* 8)

COMING

A dialogue between NEA President Helen Bain and the presidents of the other five of the "big six" national organizations in education

An article about the greatest threat college freshmen face—freedom

Facts about student suicide, the fourth leading cause of death in our young people

This year's "Briefing for Parents" on how to communicate with children and get them to communicate with you

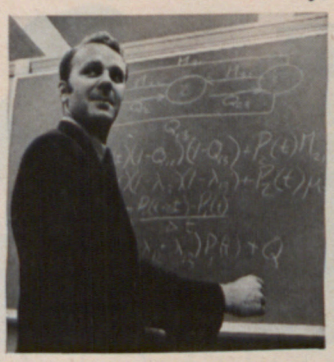
A discussion by the U.S. Commissioner of Social Security

This modeler has a system that guides 365 tons of plane—with no strings.

Every modeler likes to fly bigger and bigger planes, but Wally Sterner's hobby has gotten a little out of hand. When he's not flying his ½-hp. stunter, Wally leads a group of engineers at GM's AC Electronics Division in Milwaukee. His job is to help assure the reliability of AC's Carousel IV, the automatic inertial navigation system for Boeing's 747 super jet.

Carousel IV is self-contained. It automatically navigates the super jet and maintains phenomenal accuracy without magnetic, radio, or other aids. And it's unaffected by weather. With it the 747 pilot always knows his position. At the touch of a button, he can have exact data on speed, time and distance to destination. Any information he needs is given accurately and up to the split second.

Needless to say, it's a complicated device. There are accelerometers, gyroscopes, and a digital computer. Thousands of high-precision parts. Each must be manufactured and assembled with minimal error. That's where Wally comes in. From early prototype stages, he and his team have been evaluating design and airline operating experience to assure product excellence. Wally calls it reliability engineering.



The results of their work can be seen in the performance record. The 747 flies with a precision that matches its size.

Carousel IV is a commercial derivative of another AC project, the guidance systems for the Apollo Command and Lunar Modules. With the know-how from that success, Wally and his co-workers have brought greater efficiency and safety to the airways by taking navigation from the Age of Columbus to the Age of Armstrong, Collins and Aldrin.

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Plato, Rousseau, Schweitzer, Tolstoy, Leonardo da Vinci.

"The competition was organized by the British Parliamentary Group for World Government and the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession.

"The aim was to focus attention of parents, teachers, and students on the need for a greater sense of world community and how education could encourage it. The entries had to list men or women 'the knowledge of whom would be likely to encourage world understanding.'"

—Louise Schiller, *University of London, England.*

The Pollution Special Feature

I would respectfully like to ask you to correct the record with regard to the statements made about polyvinyl chloride containers being a threat to the environment. [See "Tips for Ecology-Conscious Consumers," which was adapted from "Eco-Tips," the consumer guide of Concern, Inc., of Washington, DC.]

Plastics are organic materials that can be disposed of safely in landfills. They compact with other refuse and, unlike other organic materials, they do not decompose and release methane gas, which is highly flammable, or leachate, which may percolate into fresh water supplies.

Plastics create no particular problem, except that they use up a certain amount of space. Since similar paper products probably use approximately the same amount of space when landfilled and continue to occupy some space after decomposition, consideration of landfill disposal space cannot have much influence on decisions regarding the use of plastic versus other products.

Properly designed incinerators will handle plastics readily. These materials add heat values to the municipal refuse. This increased heat results in more complete burning of other less combustible, low heat value refuse.

There are misconceptions about the release of gases when plastics are burned. It is important to realize that combustion products of all of the organic materials being incinerated—paper, woods, cotton, food wastes, grass, coal, petroleum products, and, of course, plastics—must be considered toxic. Gases produced by the various organics are readily handled in properly designed incinerators, with no hazards to the environment.

—C. N. Kracht, *plastics waste management, the Society of the Plastics Industry, Inc., New York City.*

Concern, Inc., takes the position that PVC is a pollutant because it is a solid waste disposal problem. When burned in incinerators, it produces hydrogen chloride, which, in combination with water, forms hydrochloric acid. This corrosive gas is capable of severely damaging air-cleaning devices in incinerators. If excessive quantities of the gas are emitted from incinerators, damage to plants and buildings may result. When disposed of in sanitary landfills, PVC containers are difficult to compact and are not readily biodegradable. Unlike glass, PVC is not reusable. Unlike glass, aluminum, and steel, it cannot be recycled thus far.

The Society of the Plastics Industry takes the position that improved methods of incineration would provide adequate disposal of PVC. Concern feels that the improved methods of incineration envisioned by SPI are a definite and much needed goal in the disposal of solid waste, but we realize that this goal will take anywhere from 10 to 20 years to achieve. We therefore strongly urge the plastics industry to discontinue the manufacture of PVC containers and turn to the production of a substitute.

Meanwhile we will continue to recommend that products in glass containers be purchased, unless it can definitely be established that the plastic container is not PVC or can be recycled or reused.

—Margaret Mickey, *secretary, Concern, Inc., Washington, DC.*

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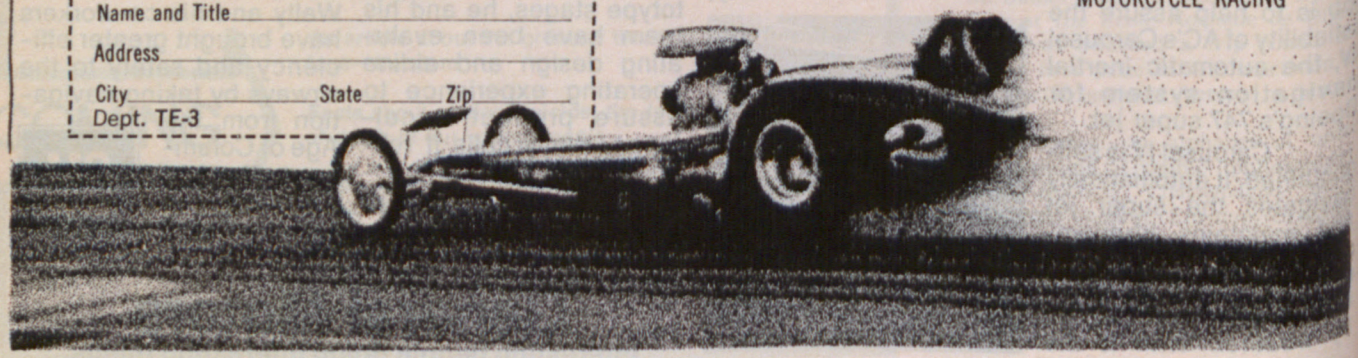

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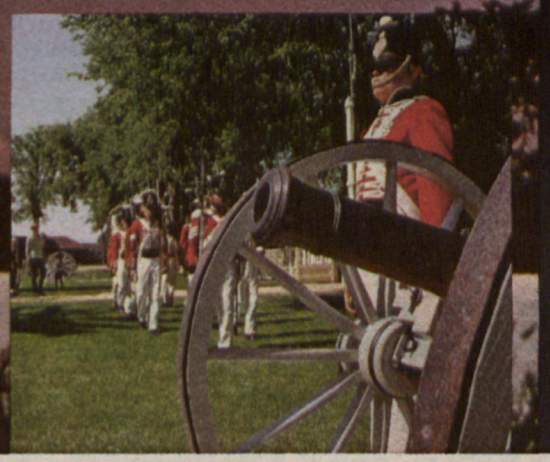

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TEACHER OPINION POLL

Differentiated Pay and Overtime Pay

☐ Most teachers think they should be paid in relation to their particular responsibilities and that they should receive overtime pay for extra assignments outside regular school hours. Seven in 10 of the nation's classroom teachers favor differentiated pay for teachers with different responsibilities, and 9 in 10 teachers favor overtime pay for extra assignments.

This information comes from two questions asked of a nationwide sample of public school teachers in a recent Teacher Opinion Poll. The first question was:

Do you favor or oppose differentiated pay scales for teachers whose instructional responsibilities vary within an individual school? (e.g. teacher, master teacher, team leader, team teacher)

The second question was:

Do you believe that teachers should receive overtime pay for assigned responsibilities (such as chaperoning dances, selling tickets for ball games, sponsoring clubs) outside the regular school day?

Possible responses to this question included: (a) yes, an amount prorated on basic teacher's salary; (b) yes, 1½ times basic pay per hour; (c) yes, twice basic pay per hour; (d) yes, a flat amount per assignment; (e) yes, other; and (f) no, I do not believe in overtime pay for teachers.

In answer to the first question, more than one-fourth of the teachers responded that they *strongly* favored differentiated pay, while more than two-fifths *tended* to favor it. A higher percentage of men than of women was *strongly* in favor, but the percentages of men and women who *tended* to favor differentiated pay were similar.

	Total	Men	Women
Strongly favor	26.9%	33.9%	23.5%
Tend to favor	42.1	41.2	42.5
Tend to oppose	18.7	14.2	21.0
Strongly oppose	12.2	10.7	13.0

A higher percentage of teachers in small school systems favored differentiated pay. Seventy-five percent of the teachers in systems with less than 3,000 pupils either strongly favored or tended to favor differentiated pay, as compared with 67 percent of the teachers in systems with 3,000 to 24,999 pupils and 66 percent in systems with more than 25,000 pupils. A larger proportion of suburban teachers (70 percent) and of rural teachers (73 percent) than of urban teachers (64 percent) was in favor of differentiated pay scales for teachers.

Although the overwhelming majority of teachers agree that teachers should receive overtime pay for extra assignments, opinions differ on the basis of payment. The largest proportion (40 percent) favors a flat amount per assignment, but almost as many (36 percent) think teachers should receive an amount prorated on basic salary. Opinions of men and women teachers do not differ greatly on whether teachers should receive overtime pay, although a slightly higher percentage of men than of women favors this practice. However, more women than men favor payment of overtime on a flat-amount basis.

	Total	Men	Women
Yes, prorated amount	35.9%	39.6%	34.0%
1½ times basic hourly pay	8.5	10.1	7.7
twice basic hourly pay	4.2	8.4	2.1
flat amount per assignment	39.8	34.1	42.7
other	1.5	1.2	1.7
Total Yes	89.9	93.4	88.2
No	10.1	6.6	11.9

Teachers in different geographic regions of the country hold generally similar opinions about whether they should receive overtime pay. Eighty-seven percent of teachers in the Southeast and the West, 91 percent in the Northeast, and 93 percent in the Middle approve of this practice. However, the greater regional variations appear in teachers' opinions about the basis of payment. Forty-eight percent of schoolteachers in the Middle States, as compared with 41 percent in the Northeast, favor flat-amount payments, while fewer schoolteachers in the West (35 percent) and the Southeast (31 percent) share this opinion.

Opinions of teachers in different size school systems do not differ significantly on whether teachers should receive overtime pay, but a higher percentage of teachers in systems with 25,000 or more pupils favors payment on a *pro rata* basis while a larger proportion of the teachers in smaller systems favors payment of flat amounts. No significant difference appears among the opinions of teachers in urban, suburban, and rural communities.

—*NEA Research Division.*

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Look on the Bright Side

Children are usually eager to report the faults and misdeeds of their classmates. To overcome this tendency, I ask my children to look for the good things others do. When they see a classmate doing a good deed, they write a note about it and put the note in a box we keep for that purpose.

On Friday the chairman of the week empties the box, reads the notes aloud, and gives them to those concerned. Both the note writer and his subject share in a pleasant glow of friendship. This positive approach helps.

—Helen Wingerter, *fifth grade teacher, Polk Street School, Franklin Square, New York.*

Reading Audiences

The first grader is proud to show off his newly learned reading skill, and I find that three or four kindergarteners make a delightful audience.

My first grader "calls" for three or four kindergarten children (preselected by their teacher) at their door. Then they follow him to our reading corner where he proudly reads a story. At the end of the primer, a first grader is usually proficient enough to select a special story for this purpose. The practice has double benefits, because the kindergarten child cannot wait until he too can read to someone else.

Before trying this idea, (a) let first graders practice how they will wait for the kindergartner to get settled and how they will make their voices interesting, (b) prepare a corner with a chair for the reader and space on the floor for the kindergartners, and (c) ask the little ones' teacher to show them how to be good listeners.

—Mary Johnston, *first grade teacher, James Monroe School, Stockton, California.*

Kick Baseball

Here's a variation of kick ball that will get rid of those rainy day wiggles:

Take your students to the gym and divide them into two equal teams. Position members of one team as catcher, pitcher, first base, second base, third base, and shortstop, with the rest of the team as fielders beyond the base line. The other team lines up behind "home plate."

The pitcher rolls the ball, the first "batter" kicks it and starts running for first base with his whole team running behind him in line.

The fielder who recovers the ball throws it to the first baseman, who catches it and throws it to the second baseman, who catches it and throws it to the third baseman, who catches it and throws it to the catcher at home plate. Meanwhile, the whole team is running around the bases.

When the catcher gets the ball and holds it up, the runners who have not yet crossed home plate do *not* score. The team scores one point for each runner (including the original batter) who crossed home plate before the catcher received the ball.

You can either let every team member take a turn at bat each inning or else let a prearranged number of batters (say, five) take turns. Unless the class is unusually large, I generally let everyone bat each inning. The team with the most points at the end of an equal number of turns at bat wins the game.

—William J. Thomas, *sixth grade teacher, Oakridge (Oregon) Elementary School.*

The Science Bee

Some years ago, in an attempt to put interest and enjoyment into review activities, I devised a "Science Bee" that has proved extremely effective. Students must understand that this activity is beneficial only if carried out properly.

Two volunteer captains alternately choose team members; or, if the class is almost evenly divided by sex, one team may be the girls and the other, the boys. We follow this procedure:

Each person listens carefully to all questions, not just to his own. *Everyone* thinks of the answer to the question. The person whose turn it is answers. If he fails to answer correctly, he sits down. At his turn, each student has one chance to answer and answers for himself without help from his teammates.

Anyone who talks at all during the questioning must sit down. If one

(*Continued on page* 76)

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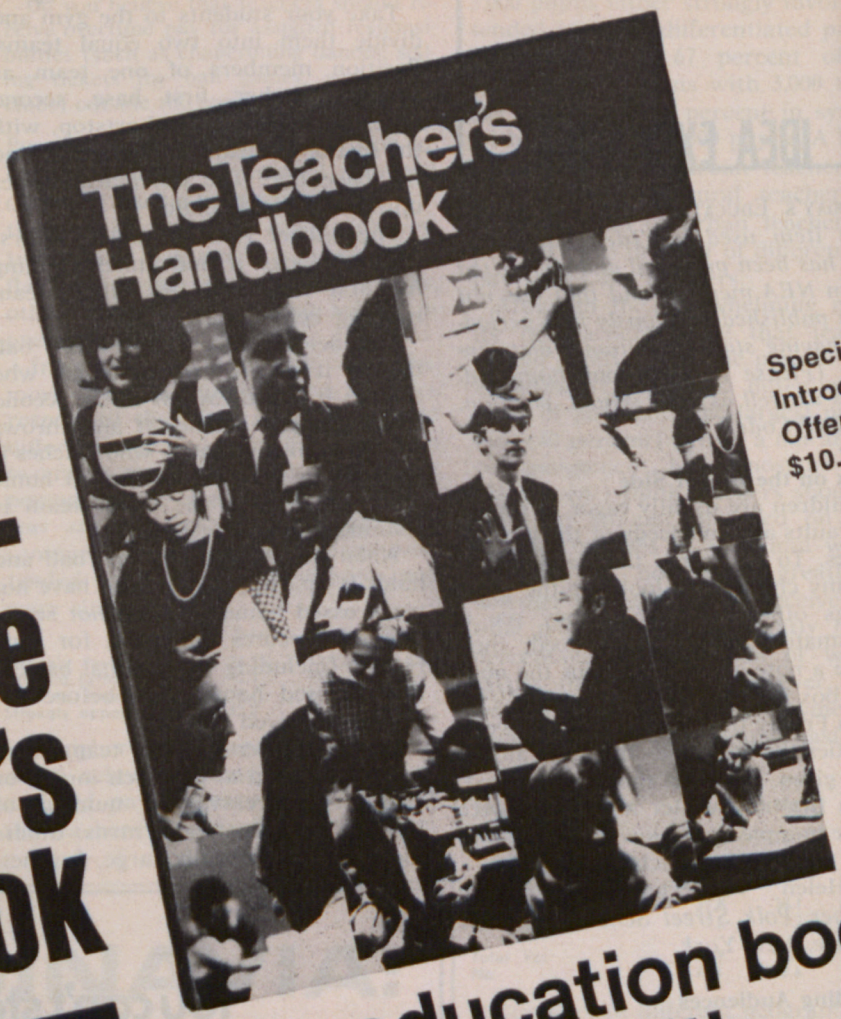
The Teacher's Handbook



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The Teacher's Handbook never loses sight of the fact that, whatever the educational controversies, local community aims, or administrative problems, the pivotal figure in the school system is the teacher; and that today, when education is challenged as never before, the teacher can use all the help he or she can get.

Consider the contents below and send for your copy of The Teacher's Handbook at its introductory price of $10.95 ($12.95 after April 1, 1971). After you have read the book, you may wonder how you ever got along without it.

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LOREN R. MOSHER, M.D., *chief, Center for Studies of Schizophrenia, National Institute of Mental Health, Chevy Chase, Maryland.*

SCHIZOPHRENIA: SEARCHING MIND

□ **Over two million living Americans have suffered** from schizophrenia, the most prevalent and incapacitating of the major mental illnesses. Half of the nation's 400,000 beds in mental hospitals are presently occupied by patients bearing this diagnosis. It is estimated that 2 percent of persons born in 1960 will have an episode of schizophrenia sometime during their lives; in certain social settings—the urban slum, for example—this prediction rises to 6 percent.

Primarily an illness of the young, schizophrenia usually begins in late adolescence or early adulthood and may result in repeated hospitalizations or chronic institutionalization throughout the afflicted individual's most potentially productive years. The National Association for Mental Health estimates that this disruptive disorder costs the nation $14 billion annually, but mere figures cannot convey its costs in terms of personal anguish and stunted human potential.

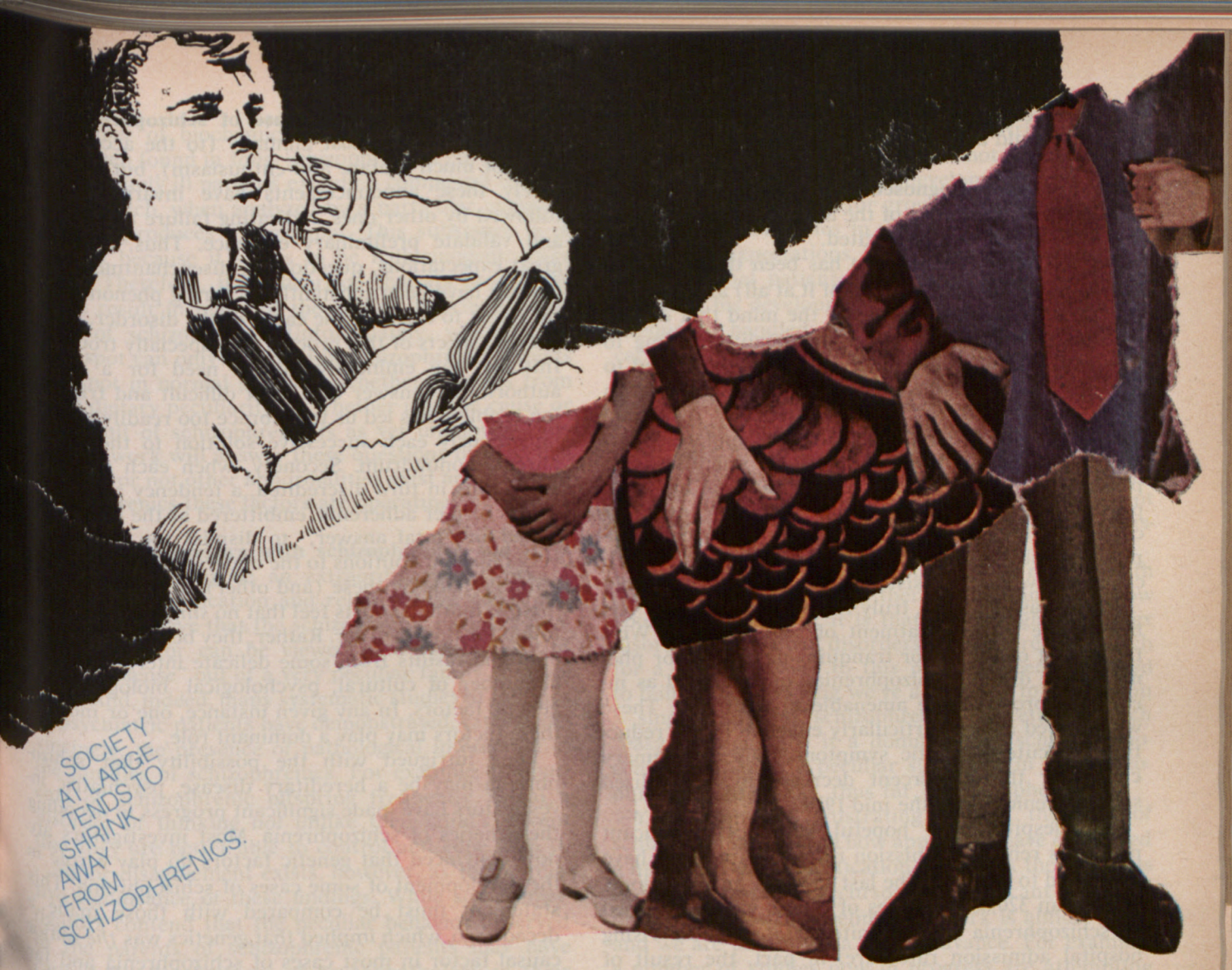
Given the magnitude of the problem, schizophrenia is the recipient of a disproportionately small share of public attention and concern. Schizophrenics constitute a neglected minority group, lacking economic resources and political clout. It seems unlikely, however, that the public apathy schizophrenics engender can be attributed to this fact.

Indeed, many believe that the problem of mental illness is neglected, not because it is so rare, but because it is so *pervasive*. There is a little madness in everyone. Even the sanest among us may secretly worry that the small patch of irrationality lurking within him will someday expand until, unchecked, it dominates his personality. Given the almost universal fear of "losing one's mind," it is small wonder that our society has traditionally kept its "madmen" at a distance—both physically and emotionally. We do this by housing so many of the mentally ill far away from populous areas (to avoid "infecting" others, perhaps?) in large, impersonal state institutions—a case of "out of sight, out of mind." Nevertheless, the forgotten schizophrenic performs a service for society; he personifies and, thus, bears the burden of our own suppressed irrationality.

The schizophrenic patient's immediate family, reflecting the attitude of society at large, tends to shrink away from its sick member. By relegating him to a custodial institution, they are able to shield themselves from day-to-day confrontations with his frightening, perplexing disorder. Ironically, one of the schizophrenic's most striking characteristics is his indifference to his own fate and to events in the world around him—a lack of interest that the world repays in kind.

Having been chastized for callous indifference, the reader is now entitled to seize the offensive. "Just what," he may ask, "*is* schizophrenia?"—a strategic retort, since the effort required to frame an answer is guaranteed to strip the sanctimonious writer of his air of moral righteousness. Exceedingly difficult to define or explain, schizophrenia is a multifaceted disorder of the *person*, affecting his feelings, thoughts, and actions. In schizophrenia, the afflicted person *is* the illness, rather than the host or vehicle for it as is true in most physical (as opposed to mental) illnesses.

The condition may become manifest as a drastic personality change—an inability to get along meaning-



fully with other people (being severely angered by minor slights or rudeness, for example), an unusual difficulty in concentrating (an off-in-another-world quality), or the experiencing of perceptual changes (for example, soft sounds may seem overwhelmingly loud and frightening). As already noted, the schizophrenic is sometimes withdrawn and seemingly unaware of what is going on around him; in extreme cases, he may be perpetually silent and rigidly immobile—a state known as catatonia.

Schizophrenics may have elaborate, systematized, illogical beliefs (delusions), often perceiving themselves as the intended victims of diabolical plots. A person who firmly believes, for example, that the CIA intends to "eliminate" him would be termed paranoid. Not all delusions are paranoid in nature; instead, a patient may have a distorted sense of *who* or *what* he is. Indeed, it is not at all uncommon for a single psychiatric ward to contain several patients who believe themselves to be Christ reborn. Hearing voices (hallucinations) is yet another symptom of schizophrenia. For example, schizophrenics may actually hear their own consciences accuse them of wrongdoing.

Contrary to what many people have heard or read, schizophrenia is *not* synonymous with the term *split personality* or even with the kind of Dr. Jekyll-and-Mr. Hyde switch in character that it connotes. This unfortunate association arose from the description by Bleuler (who wrote a celebrated book on schizophrenia, which was published in 1911) of the apparent disparities between some schizophrenics' thoughts and emotions—thus a splitting of feelings from ideas. Another common misconception is the belief that schizophrenics are unusually prone to violence; in fact, no statistics suggest that the schizophrenic, despite his confused state, is any more likely to commit acts of violence than the average man.

The preceding list of characteristics is not intended to be comprehensive; rather, it attempts to spell out those symptoms of schizophrenia that might be most noticeable to laymen. Many of these symptoms are ones that quite "normal" people exhibit at some point during their lives. For example, it is common following the death of a loved one for members of the bereaved family to withdraw from the world around them for a period of time. However, withdrawal found in schizophrenia, while similar to this state, is more intense and prolonged and is generally associated with other of the above-mentioned characteristics.

Because the symptoms of schizophrenia are so interwoven with personality in general, they may vary considerably over a period of time in a given individual. In addition, the manifestations of schizophrenia are rarely exactly alike in any two individuals. (This has

led most scientists to believe that the term *schizophrenia* should actually be *schizophrenias.*)

Many persons diagnosed as schizophrenic recover so completely that none of the above-mentioned symptoms can ever again be elicited.

For too long schizophrenia has been thought of by the lay public (if they thought of it at all) as a chronic, progressive, hopeless disease of the mind that comes, in time, to involve the entire personality, leading to irreversible dementia. This attitude may be traced to the old Germanic designation of schizophrenia as *dementia praecox*, or "deterioration of the mind occurring in the young." Although a complete understanding of schizophrenia still eludes scientists, this pessimistic view of its course and outcome has been proven false in all but a very small percentage of cases. In current terminology, *dementia* usually implies definable changes in the brain substance; no such changes have been consistently found in schizophrenia.

In the past 15 years, truly remarkable progress has been made in the treatment of schizophrenia. With the advent of the major tranquilizing agents (or phenothiazine drugs), schizophrenia—once defined as incurable—proved quite amenable to treatment. These widely used drugs, particularly effective in the reduction of acute psychotic symptoms, deserve primary credit for the 30 percent decrease in hospitalized schizophrenics since the mid-1950's.

But despite these hopeful statistics, significant problems remain. Admission rates, for example, have continued to soar over the last 15 years; in 1968, alone, more than 320,000 episodes of illness were diagnosed as schizophrenia in the United States. These rising hospital admission rates are, in part, the result of multiple hospital stays of individual patients. (Although patients are being hospitalized for shorter periods than previously, they are also being readmitted more frequently—a process that has been dubbed "the revolving-door phenomenon." In the United States, about half of schizophrenics discharged after an initial episode of illness will be readmitted during the succeeding two years.) Furthermore, and perhaps more distressing, is the fact that only 15 to 40 percent of schizophrenics living in the community achieve what might be termed an average level of adjustment —that is, being self-supporting or successfully functioning as a spouse or parent.

Therefore, it would seem that the tranquilizing drugs, although immensely helpful, are not curative as was initially hoped. If drugs alone are not enough, it seems obvious that increased emphasis must be placed on psychological therapies of schizophrenia. Recent evidence from Denmark and Finland buttresses this contention. Less than 5 percent of schizophrenics in those countries are chronically hospitalized as compared with 15 to 25 percent in the United States. Since Danish and Finnish psychiatrists administer tranquilizing drugs much as their American counterparts do, they believe this lower rate of chronic hospitalization must result from their greater emphasis on non-drug-related treatment efforts.

The discovery of the cause of schizophrenia has been announced almost annually (to the accompaniment of much fanfare and enthusiasm), but unfortunately these announcements have invariably been followed by other ones, indicating failure to replicate and validate preliminary evidence. Thus, cycles of great expectations, questioning, disenchantment, and despair have been constantly recurring phenomena in the quest to discover the cause of the disorder.

Two aspects of this process are especially troubling. Initially, the eminently human need for a simple authoritative answer to a most difficult and frightening problem has led us to embrace too readily and too impetuously each successive solution to the schizophrenic conundrum. Secondly, when each proffered solution is in turn discredited, a tendency also exists for its former adherents, embittered at the loss of the hoped-for "total answer," to dismiss too hastily the very real contributions to the understanding of schizophrenia made by these (and other) studies.

Now, most scientists feel that no *single* cause will be found for this disorder. Rather, they believe that schizophrenia results from some delicate interplay among a number of cultural, psychological, biological, and genetic factors. In any given instance, one or more of these factors may play a dominant role.

Long intrigued with the possibility that schizophrenia may be a hereditary disease, psychiatric investigators have made significant progress in decoding the genetics of schizophrenia. Most investigators are now convinced that genetic factors do play a role in the development of some cases of schizophrenia. This statement must be compared with those made a decade ago, which implied that genetics was *the* major causal factor in most cases of schizophrenia and far outweighed any minor environmental influences.

It is now widely accepted, however, that environmental factors also play an important role in determining whether or not a given individual becomes schizophrenic and that the role of heredity is much less vital than was formerly supposed. Most geneticists now reject the contention that schizophrenia, per se, is inherited. Instead, they believe that a predisposition is inherited, which, given the proper constellation of other factors, can lead to the schizophrenia.

So we are confronted with the knowledge that heredity plays some role in the genesis of schizophrenia—a finding that raises more questions than it answers. Granted, something may be inherited in some cases, but precisely what that something is remains a matter of speculation. Is it an enzyme defect, a biochemical abnormality, a minor neurological deficit, or any one of a seemingly infinite number of factors? If a predisposition is inherited, what is it? How does it operate? What is the true nature and course of the spiraling feedback mechanism set up in the individual, his family, and the social system?

Thus befuddled, it seems advisable for us to move on to another area in the search for the causes of this mystifying disorder—the biochemical investigation of schizophrenia. As of this writing, no biochemical defect has been discovered in *all* schizophrenics;

a number of biochemical abnormalities have, however, been found in *some* schizophrenics. For example, many acutely ill patients excrete a compound in their urine, which, when analyzed by a particular chemical method, produces a pink spot. This substance is of interest because it seems to be hallucinogenic (like LSD). Therefore, it is theorized that its production could result in many of the earlier described symptoms of schizophrenia. Unfortunately, whether the pink spot can only be found in schizophrenic patients (and not in normal persons), whether it stems from some dietary peculiarity, or whether it is the cause or the result of schizophrenia is as yet unknown. Only further work will answer these questions or establish whether or not other abnormalities exist and in which schizophrenics these factors are operating.

Because interviews with schizophrenics and their families often expose an extraordinary network of warped communication and relationships, some psychiatrists believe that the schizophrenic patient's irrational behavior can be viewed as a special way of making "sense" out of a very peculiar family environment. And, indeed, many systematic studies of families of psychiatric patients have demonstrated, rather convincingly, the presence of pathological interaction in the families of schizophrenics. For example, the parents of schizophrenic offspring frequently reveal a disorder of thinking not unlike their child's, except that they are better able to control and cope with it.

Major disagreement exists, however, as to the relative significance of these findings. While some investigators contend that the peculiar behavior observed in the parents of schizophrenic patients may have caused the development of psychopathology in their child, other investigators retort that the parents' odd behavior may simply stem from their efforts to relate to their already strange offspring. Since most studies are carried out after the child has been diagnosed schizophrenic (true of almost all research in schizophrenia), it is a matter of opinion whether the family's deviant interactional patterns cause or result from the occurrence of psychopathology in the offspring (as was noted above about biochemical abnormalities).

Yet another thorny, and unanswered, question confronts investigators who contend that parents play a causal role in schizophrenia's development: Why does one child in the family become schizophrenic while his siblings generally do not?

Although studying the role of the family in the illness has not solved the schizophrenic conundrum, it has had a significant impact on the psychiatrist's conceptualization of schizophrenia. No longer do we confine our search for schizophrenia's causal factors to the psychotic patient alone. We are more inclined to consider the interlocking nature of psychiatric illness, the ways in which its occurrence in one family member may affect—and be affected by—other family members. For example, some psychiatrists are now beginning to view schizophrenia, not as a crippling disease, but as an individual development crisis (with important possibilities for growth) resulting from the individual's difficulties in dealing with a peculiar set of familial expectations. Thus, the madness we see in the individual patient may represent a crisis in the course of his development within his family, which, if adequately handled, can actually result in psychological growth and subsequent independence.

Even if the family is in no way involved in causing schizophrenia, one member's problems will clearly reverberate among all members; and any, or all, may contribute to the perpetuation of schizophrenia and to the development of its chronicity. Consequently, a shift in the definition of the psychiatrist-patient relationship is now under way—the *patient* is increasingly defined as the *family!*

The problem of schizophrenia is still riddled with unanswered questions. If there is anything we know about schizophrenia, it is that it is a highly complex disorder (or group of disorders). Therefore, the search for a simple answer to this problem seems doomed to failure. For too long we've attempted to seize upon a single cause of schizophrenia. Regrettably, each "easy solution"—be it a domineering "schizophrenogenic" mother or a peculiar substance in the schizophrenic's urine—has, thus far, proved ephemeral.

Yet, despite its frustrating history, the field of schizophrenia research now appears to have developed a methodologic sophistication, which, in the past, has been a necessary precursor to significant scientific breakthroughs. The preliminary work is almost done, and we are poised for a major advance. For example, a number of studies now in progress are attempting to identify the potential schizophrenic prior to the development of overt symptoms—thus circumventing the previously inescapable chicken-egg question noted in both the biochemical and family studies areas. Because such studies will eventually allow us to identify many schizophrenics-to-be, they will also facilitate the development of methods of preventive intervention, clearly the most practical approach to a problem of this magnitude.

But though there is reason for optimism, the position of psychiatric research is precarious. Never the recipient of significant attention from American citizens or their elected representatives, the problem of schizophrenia faces still greater neglect. Aggravating an already unfavorable situation is the nation's uncertain economy. At a time when *all* federal spending on health is limited by economic considerations, it is doubly difficult for a traditionally underfunded area like schizophrenia to compete for Congressional appropriations with more currently popular problems.

Given the complexity of this recalcitrant disorder—which holds 1 percent of the world's population in thrall—obviously, if we are ever to develop the kind of comprehensive research program so crucial to schizophrenia's ultimate eradication, we must first combat our society's pervasive apathy toward it. □

The opinions expressed in this article are those of the author and do not necessarily represent any official position of the National Institute of Mental Health.

Let's Make Foreign Language Study More RELEVANT

MARY JACKSON, *associate professor of Spanish, Northwest Missouri State College, Maryville.*

☐ **"Why study a modern foreign language (or history,** or art, or any number of other subjects)? What good is knowledge of a foreign language—unless you want to teach it?"

How often have you heard this—or the following statement? "My father says you don't have to speak a foreign language when you travel because you can always find someone in every country you visit who speaks English. Besides, foreign languages are too hard to learn!"

All right, let's tell it like it is. Mastery of a foreign language *is* difficult. Even our best students are not proficient after two years of study under our present system of instruction. Job opportunities for modern foreign language majors are limited outside the teaching field, and teaching positions are appreciably more difficult to find now than even two years ago.

The student of the 70's demands relevancy and involvement—if I may use two overworked words. Telling him that he should study a foreign language (or any one of many other subjects) for "cultural enrichment" or to "broaden his horizons" is a waste of time. Today's student wants the nitty-gritty.

All right. Let's make the study of a foreign language so pertinent to the young person's present activities and aspirations—and so rewarding in itself—that he can see its validity, even in sections of the country where English is the only language usually heard outside the classroom.

Knowledge of a foreign language does have tangible advantages. Why not emphasize this?

For example, a knowledge of Spanish is useful to many of our young people who are idealistic and genuinely interested in helping others. A college fresh-

man I know has worked summers in a hospital in New York where most of the patients are Puerto Ricans and Cubans. She got the job because she had studied Spanish in high school. The Peace Corps offers opportunities to those who know a modern foreign language and who want to help other people within their own culture.

I'll never forget the expression of pride and joy on the face of one of my first-year Spanish students who was working part time in a gas station. One day a Mexican family stopped for gas and minor repairs on their car. They spoke no English, but this beginning Spanish student was able to communicate with them. As we discussed his experience in class the next day, Spanish suddenly became more meaningful to all my students.

Americans are world travelers and becoming more so every year. While it's true that an American can usually get along in a foreign country without knowledge of its language, travel and getting to know people in other lands are not synonymous. Can anything take the place of the warm rapport so quickly established between two "foreigners" when one speaks the other's language—even haltingly?

One evening while I was walking along a narrow street in Paris, I stopped a woman to ask where I could find a drugstore in that section of the city. The woman spoke no English whatsoever, and my French was meager. But we managed to communicate and for three or four minutes we were such good friends! She was lively and charming, and as I think back to our brief encounter, I can still see and hear her—an experience that would have been impossible without my study of French so long ago.

Last winter while the parents of a student of mine were visiting in Mexico, they decided to phone their daughter from Mexico City. As the call was being completed, the girl overheard the operator in that city speaking Spanish, and she was able to understand much of what was said. The next day my student commented, "Miss Jackson, was that ever *neat!*"

All of the foregoing is intended as a counterattack on a situation of grave concern to the modern language teaching profession—the nationwide downward trend in the study of modern foreign languages. A number of prestigious colleges and universities are either dropping their language requirements or relaxing them. Stanford University no longer requires a foreign language for the bachelor of arts degree—nor do Yale, the University of Vermont, and the University of Washington. Many schools which have not yet dropped the requirement report they are under attack. Even the traditional foreign language requirements for advanced degrees are being relaxed.

A survey undertaken recently by the Modern Language Association of America points up the seriousness of the situation. According to preliminary data from 698 U.S. colleges, nearly 45 percent of them lowered their foreign language requirements for a B.A. degree between 1966 and 1970. However, only about 8 percent of these same colleges lowered their foreign language entrance requirements during the same period.

To be oblivious to the decline in modern language study is foolhardy. We dare not be complacent, yet we cannot afford to be defeatist. What is the answer to our dilemma?

I believe we can counteract this downward trend by an intelligent reappraisal of modern foreign language study and of ourselves as teachers—and by making some practical and overdue innovations. But of course there is no easy solution for such a many faceted problem.

Much can be done by the National Education Association, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, the Modern Language Association, state foreign language departments and consultants in the various states, and by single associations, such as the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese. All of these and various other agencies can promote and encourage modern foreign language study at all levels.

However, I firmly believe that the local community must assume much of the responsibility. It is up to us as individual teachers to meet the challenge, and we must do it now, before it is too late. It's easy for teachers to become so deeply entrenched administratively and pedagogically that we resist change. Modern language instruction is much better than it was 10 years ago, but we can and must improve ourselves, our methods, and our system still further. A realistic assessment and restructuring of modern language study objectives is necessary, along with a critical evaluation of the teacher, methods, and curriculum.

Obviously, the traditional reasons for studying a modern foreign language are not acceptable to today's students. However, this study *can* be related to their lives and goals, and this must be one of our prime objectives. If a student sees tangible evidence of the value of knowing a foreign language, and if he is sufficiently motivated, the rest will take care of itself. If he can read a French newspaper, or order from the menu given him in Mexico, he has dramatic proof of the value of knowing another language. The taste of enviable achievement is impelling; success begets success.

True understanding and appreciation of another people and their culture has for a number of years been a goal of foreign language study and it must continue to be. But perhaps the approach has been too staid and static. This brings us to a second consideration: the teacher. The individual teacher must accept initial responsibility for opening new doors to the learner.

Let's take a good hard look at ourselves as individuals first and as teachers next. Do we observe the Golden Rule in our relations with students?

For example, would you like to be treated the way you treat the young people in your class? Are you really competent in your subject? Enthusiastic? Do you have a good sense of humor that shows frequently? Are you fair and impartial? Is the learning that takes place in your classroom accidental or is it

The successful foreign language teacher develops his own special techniques for the effective use of instructional media.

the result of careful planning? If you have a sound lab, do you use it to the best advantage? Are you wasting precious time in nonproductive activities, such as too much reading aloud by individual students? Are your students little more than parrots because you deal unimaginatively with vocabulary and structure of classroom dialogues? Do your classroom activities seem to drag?

This leads us to methods. Volumes have been written on this subject and opinions conflict, but I firmly believe that a good teacher can successfully teach a modern language regardless of the book or method used (within a certain framework). And by saying "successfully teach" I mean that a good teacher sets certain objectives and reaches those objectives according to his plans.

Techniques that are effective for you will not necessarily be the best ones for me. Many cut-and-dried distinctions have been made between the so-called traditional or grammar-translation method, the audio-lingual approach, and the cognitive code, but it is doubtful that there are many teachers who adhere exclusively to one or the other.

New instructional techniques will be developed in the future, and the effective teacher will select the best from all methods—combining them into his own individual method. Ten years from now, some form of computer-aided instruction will no doubt be widely used, but that doesn't mean the teacher will be dispensable.

We should consider innovations in curriculum as well as in method. Perhaps we could give more emphasis to contemporary studies and journalistic materials. A foreign language newspaper contains a wealth of material for all levels: news, advertisements, classified ads, editorials, crossword puzzles, horoscopes, and cartoons.

Why not teach Spanish civilization in Spanish, or German history in German? Couldn't we have some typewriters with foreign-language keyboards? Is there a place for Spanish shorthand? And what about the very important skill of letter writing? Students want to know how to write for hotel reservations, how to say "thank you" for a gift or other kindness, how to order merchandise they have seen advertised. Letters dealing with topics like this make excellent composition topics for the foreign language class.

To sum up: Objectives, the teacher, methods, curriculum—these are the four areas for critical evaluation and improvement. If we grow in our profession and keep pace with these changing times, without relinquishing recognized values, we can tell it like it is and successfully meet new challenges. □

GETTING PASSIVE STUDENTS TO

SPEAK UP

HERBERT WEINTRAUB, *professor of education, Harcum Junior College, Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania, and lecturer, Drexel University, Philadelphia.*

□ **Every classroom has students who always take** part in discussion and who regularly volunteer to answer questions. Some are just alert, youngsters who are stimulated by the lesson; others are unconsciously trying to satisfy their need for attention.

For every pupil with a hand raised, however, there are several who rarely join in class discussion. Many never speak unless a teacher directly elicits their comments. The reasons for their reticence vary: Some students have no information or opinions to contribute; some are bored by the material being taught or do not understand it; others fail to participate actively because they feel insecure. Individuals who are well-adjusted, but somewhat insecure, may fear that their comments in class will not be as valuable as the other students' or that their contributions will not be well-received by their teacher and/or their classmates. As they get older, such children become more and more reluctant to take part in class discussions.

Sometimes passive students will speak up in class if they have a chance to complain. In a high school class that I taught, those students who were usually passive complained bitterly about their more vocal peers. They said that their classmates who participated were "show-offs" who like "to hear themselves talk."

After the class period in which this discussion took place, the usually voluble members of the class held a secret caucus and decided that they would not speak at all the next time the class met.

The following day class began as usual. For 10 minutes, I compared the types of jobs Americans held 40 years ago with those of the present day, stressing the impact of automation on the job economy of the country. When I thought the class understood the topic, I solicited questions and discussion. Not a hand was raised.

In an effort to evoke a response, I asked one of the usual class contributors what he thought of the topic. In reply, he whispered that he had laryngitis.

The desperate efforts I made to solicit comments or questions from other students only raised my anxiety level and that of the students. That period was the most uncomfortable one I have ever experienced as a teacher. It taught me a lesson, however: The teacher must make a special effort to involve passive students in class discussion.

Dr. Weintraub taught in public school for 14 years.

The following are several techniques that teachers might use to encourage passive pupils to make contributions in class.

- Since students with written notes in front of them often feel more comfortable about joining a discussion, teachers might suggest that students write about a topic before a discussion begins. This could be done as a homework or classwork assignment, which would not be graded. (However, if an instructor regularly makes such assignments to stimulate discussion, student enthusiasm will quickly vanish.)
- Most textbooks list references at the ends of chapters or units. A teacher might request that certain class members research these. These students would then have something special to contribute to the class—information with which the rest of the class may be unfamiliar.
- The teacher might give each student an outline of the course content for the year. This would give students a clearer idea of what would go on in future class sessions and enable them to think ahead about some of the discussion topics.
- The more secure a student feels, the more likely he is to participate in class discussion; therefore, the teacher must do all he can to make students feel at ease and build their self-esteem. A smile or a complimentary remark can be the source of great encouragement to the insecure student when he makes a comment in class.

Also, the instructor should not needlessly find fault with the remarks made by members of the class. A caustic reply to one student might inhibit the responses of many others.

- The instructor's enthusiasm can act as a stimulant for discussion. The educator who is excited about the material he teaches is the most likely to inspire all his students, even the most passive.
- Breaking the class into buzz groups to discuss ideas may stimulate students who are afraid to express themselves in front of the whole class. If each group has about six members, almost everyone will be able to participate actively in the discussion.

The confidence and skills gained through participation in class discussion can have great value for students. Therefore, encouraging them to enter a discussion are well worth the teacher's efforts. □

LIVING LAB FOR HIGH SCHOO

MARGARET P. LARSON, *teacher of homemaking education, Berkeley (California) High School.*

□ **"This class has improved my school day tremendously.** Working with the children makes an unbearable day bearable."

"The children are beautiful. They have virtues and faults just as we do. They have things to learn and mistakes to make. The more time I spend with them, the more entrancing this course becomes."

These are some of the comments voiced by students enrolled in the Nursery Teacher Aide Training Program at Berkeley (California) High School. Like many other schools, Berkeley offers students the opportunity to work in a "living laboratory" made up of preschool children. At present, 32 students, including five boys, are enrolled in the one-semester course.

Organized under the federal Vocational Education Act of 1963, the program is now in its fifth year at our school. It operates in two settings—at Berkeley High and at a small, experimental continuation school. The high school program is housed in our Home Economics Department; the continuation program meets off campus—at one of the city's adult education parent-nursery schools.

The program has several goals. First, it helps prepare young people for their future role as parents and makes them aware of the great responsibilities involved in parenthood. Among other things, they discover how deeply a parent's behavior and actions affect preschoolers. An example comes to mind.

One little boy in our nursery class was completely devastated after his mother took the baby and deserted the family. The father considered moving back,

Tnis article was obtained with the cooperation of the Home Economics Association, an NEA national affiliate.

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with the other children, to his former home in another state. But his young son would have none of it.

The child clung to his nursery school—seemingly all he had left of his former happy world. As a result, the father decided to stay in California, where his son could continue school in familiar surroundings.

Of course, the youngster did not act as he had before. Often he refused to participate, even to smile. At this point, the high school students set to work. One boy, in particular, spent a great deal of time with the child, hoping to undo some of the damage. As a result of his efforts, the little boy started to improve, and now he is both playing and smiling again. This may be a good place to say that preschool children are particularly fond of their teen-age male teachers.

The nursery aides soon learn that growing up is a lengthy process with many regressions. Later they begin to understand some of the pitfalls in child-rearing that parents may discover only through a grueling process of trial and error.

A second goal is to prepare high school girls for the dual role of homemaker and wage earner—a role of prime concern to many young women. The Teacher Aide Training Program offers a student who is not college-bound an entry-level skill; it offers the student who *is* a possible source of needed income.

High school is not too early to recruit "born teachers"—those who have a special way with children. Education needs them, and they must have the opportunity to learn the values and satisfactions of teaching. The Program serves this purpose too.

Last, but certainly not least, we feel that work with nursery children helps a young person toward self-understanding. A student is often able to clarify his personal goals and to understand his own strengths and weaknesses—as he relates to children, adults, and fellow class members in a real-life situation.

A multipurpose room and an enclosed patio with an adjacent playground—all part of the Homemaking Department—comprise the setting for the nursery school at Berkeley High. A racially integrated group of about 20 children between the ages of three and five comes there two days a week from 9:45 to 11:15.

The students, who are also integrated, get practical experience in running a school on these two days and spend the other three mornings studying child development, planning new activities, and evaluating the work of the school. Many teen-age enrollees have only limited reading and writing skills, which are strengthened by the use of films, field trips to other nursery schools, and class demonstrations—followed by discussion and written evaluations.

The schedule includes free play indoors and outdoors until 10:30. The children participate in housekeeping, carpentry, and art projects, or use climbing equipment, wheel toys, and sandboxes.

Between 10:30 and 10:45, the youngsters engage in a group activity led by one or two students—singing, dancing, show and tell, or science investigation. This activity is followed by a snack planned to include the basic food groups. Listening to stories fills the remaining time. All nursery school activities must end promptly, and all materials must be put away because the room is used for a clothing class in the afternoon.

Each high school student has the chance to lead every activity (including making the advance plans and evaluating the results) sometime during the semester. As one of the culminating experiences, each nursery aide prepares a case study of one child. In preparation, he makes observations about the child's activities, play companions, conversation, and other details, and also interviews the child's mother.

A maximum of 16 students take part in the program at the off-campus continuation school on a rotating basis. Working in groups of three or four, they spend an hour each day in the parent-nursery school.

Under the guidance of their home economics teacher, they assist the nursery school teacher and her

This climbing house is on the playground of the Berkeley High School campus.

staff of three or four parents who participate one day each week. All continuation students meet with their teacher for a second hour to study and discuss child development. They also prepare creative materials and analyze their experiences with the children.

Continuation high school students are a mobile group whose members frequently enter and leave school. Often preoccupied with outside activities, they attend irregularly. The teacher's first priority is to motivate these boys and girls to complete high school.

One such boy, whom we'll call Tim, was ready to drop out of school entirely; nothing interested him. Finally his counselor persuaded him to enroll in the nursery program. From the first, Tim was wonderful with the children, and they adored him. He was even able to win the confidence of a disruptive little boy who refused to do anything he was told. After weeks of Tim's patient but firm direction, the little boy was able to take his rightful place in the nursery.

The story also has a happy ending for Tim: He decided to complete high school after all and was later able to enroll in a junior college where he continued his training to become a nursery school teacher.

Thus, despite competing drives, work in the nursery school provides a meaningful experience for boys as well as girls. Like Tim, some stay in school only because they find satisfaction in helping the children.

Incidentally, so many high school students like to visit the parent-nursery school that we have to turn some away. Parents of the children enrolled spend time making their children feel secure in this new situation. Often they bring babies with them. This adds interest for the students, who enjoy holding and caring for the infants. We believe these interrelations of parents and siblings enrich learning of family values for all involved.

All student aides may continue in the Nursery Teacher Aide Program a second, third, and fourth semester. Expanding their initial experience in an off-campus location, students serve as aides in children's centers, early learning centers, or in Head Start and Follow Through programs. They may spend four days each week in such schools, working under the supervision of a trained teacher.

One of the great values of the program is that both teachers and students quickly recognize the young people who have a natural aptitude for teaching—who really enjoy it. Some student aides are tense and uneasy when they first confront the children. Some, in fact, are never able to relate to small children, but we do not consider such students failures. One of the program's most practical goals is to find those who should teach and those who should not, and to guide the latter into other careers.

A Child Development Advisory Committee plays an important part in the program's success. Its purpose is to keep the curriculum current with the best thinking in the field of early childhood education, to provide information about employer needs, to assist us in student placement, and to keep us informed about transfer programs. Representatives from school administrations, both elementary and secondary, work with the committee and offer their assistance. The Nursery Teacher Aide staff includes home economics teachers with specialization in child development and nursery teaching experience. In addition, a person with nursery school training assists the classroom teacher at Berkeley High.

All in all, the Nursery Aide Program offers students the opportunity to explore a challenging career. It provides meaningful experiences, reinforces earlier learning, and offers the satisfaction of helping young children. And it gives participants an employable skill that, with additional training and experience, can lead to advancement in many areas. Finally, participants in this program gain insights about learning—their own and the children's. As one of them says, "Our minutes with the children are worthwhile minutes." □

New Priorities and Old Prejudices

ELIZABETH DUNCAN KOONTZ, *director of the Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.; former North Carolina teacher and former president of NEA.*

□ **It is not difficult these days—indeed, it probably** never was—to find someone who will tell you that the public schools aren't doing their job. Moreover, as the years go by, one wonders if teachers are not getting more than their share of criticism. People who wouldn't dream of offering medical advice to their doctor or legal advice to their lawyer feel completely qualified to advise educators.

Valid criticism, of course, has its uses. Through criticism we learn where we have failed, and we are spurred to rethink our methods and goals. If my remarks seem to call for more effort from those already doing a great deal, it is because I have confidence in the ability of educators to meet new challenges. If my remarks seem critical, it is because I believe the time has come to ask whether our schools can come closer to meeting the needs of three groups: the disadvantaged, our brightest students, and women.

Various kinds of pressures on education, it seems to me, prevent schools from facing up to the problems and needs of these groups. Too many schools seem preoccupied with preparing students for college.

Certainly no one seriously disputes the value of a college education or doubts that it often leads to a higher standard of living. Today's students, though, have other dreams. Among young blacks and Indians, especially, a top priority is to preserve and clarify—not to blur and erase—their sense of identification with their own minority group.

However, the greatest harm done by overemphasis on college preparation is that it wastes the potential of so many young people. If a student gets the idea that college offers the only avenue to success and if he sees he's not headed there, he considers himself a failure—perhaps at age 15. If schools reinforce this kind of thinking, they do students a real injustice—all the more serious because it is based on false assumptions. When the time comes for him to find work, he may think there's little use in looking for an interesting, challenging job.

Not all such jobs go to college graduates. Society today needs technicians trained in twentieth century skills and is willing to pay well to get them. Good jobs exist for those trained in electronics, computer programing, appliance repairs, mechanics, and drafting. Growing numbers of technicians are also needed in the paramedical fields. Our country has a shortage of physical therapists, X-ray technicians, lab assistants, and operating room attendants.

The public schools may not always be able to turn out graduates ready to go to work immediately, but they can provide the background essential for further training. This preparation should include first-rate, up-to-the-minute training in vocational education, and cooperative programs with local industries should be developed wherever possible.

The scholastic aspects of vocational education should be just as demanding as the usual college preparatory subjects. For example, vocational students usually need rigorous training in both math and science.

I would ask schools to refocus their thinking and establish new priorities. They must give *all* students an awareness of their own potential, a sense of dignity and pride in their jobs, and the confidence that with hard work they can move upward.

As things stand now, boys get a better break than

girls. A girl who is not college-bound is offered little choice in vocational training during her high school years. She may take home economics, but the skills taught are generally those that will be useful when she has her own home. Thus, unless occupational possibilities are emphasized, training in home economics is likely to make a girl dependent, not independent.

Home economics teachers must explore the vocational opportunities offered by their subject. A girl who learns to make skirts and aprons has a homemaking skill; a girl who learns to make slipcovers has a marketable skill. Similarly, the student who learns to cook oatmeal may find that useful when she has a small child who will eat it. The girl who can prepare and serve party food, on the other hand, may be able to work as a caterer.

Most high school girls may take secretarial training, but not every girl wants to be a secretary. If that is the only vocational training available, a girl may feel trapped. Unable to go to college and uninterested in office work, she may marry the first man who proposes, feeling that her life offers no interesting career choices. Schools should not be content to turn out graduates with such limited horizons. They have an obligation to open up a variety of interesting vocational opportunities to girls unable to go to college.

Ironically, a school system centered on college-bound students may, nonetheless, fail to meet the needs of many of its brightest young people. Though we cannot deal here with all the causes behind the revolt of youth, we can, I believe, find a common thread running through their alienation. Too often, under the guise of wisdom, we present students with our formula for the good life: Go to college so you can get a good job and enjoy a comfortable existence.

That formula is rooted in a self-concern so narrow and so materialistic that it turns off many sensitive young people. That they would respond to something better is suggested by the fact that they often reject material comforts in favor of searching for idealistic values and of creating their own versions of challenge. The question is, would young rebels be looking for frontiers of their own if they had been challenged by the frontiers of knowledge and of thought that have yet to be explored? Have they been made aware that these frontiers of knowledge have never been surpassed for excitement and for risk taking?

Today's youth is criticized for trying to change history without first having read it. Yet would so many young persons drop out of society to search for meaning and self-discovery if schools were more helpful in that search?

Self-discovery, of course, does not take place under teachers who think in stereotyped terms. For that reason, all teachers need to test themselves occasionally —to find out if, consciously or unconsciously, they hold attitudes or prejudices which hinder the young people in their classrooms. Stereotyped attitudes about education for women, their role in society, and the occupations which should be open to them crop up regularly—even in our schools.

The teacher who reluctantly permits a girl to sign up for shop, but makes it clear the course is not ladylike; the math book which shows Susie measuring ingredients for a cake while Johnny builds a rocket; the committee which awards more scholarships to boys than to girls (girls may marry and not "use" their education) are all examples of stereotyped thinking about male/female roles.

In that better world we dream of and hope we're building, all such artificial barriers and distinctions will be down. Unrestricted by rigid notions of what was done in the past, people will then be free to enter occupations which challenge their talents.

With greater freedom to choose and more control over their own destinies, some women will select untraditional occupations, and so will some men. We'll see more women repairing cars and appliances, and working as computer programmers, engineers, jockeys, and stockbrokers. More men may choose careers as nurses, secretaries, social workers, and elementary school teachers.

We're not going to build this kind of world in a day, but the schools can move us toward it. If girls are to find broader vocational opportunities, they will need counselors who can advise on the basis of what is possible now, not on what was available in the past.

We also must have more teachers who believe in each student's individuality—who are enlightened enough to realize that the function of the school is to help each person develop his or her highest potential.

I am not calling for the schools to chart a new direction. Rather I'm asking that they refocus their attention and reorder their priorities to meet the needs of all students. In an age which is increasingly impersonal—even dehumanized—the teacher's concern for each individual is a most essential ingredient in the educational process.

There are those who see our American school system as confused and caught between two worlds—unable to use the old ways with confidence yet equally unable to move forward and find new directions. I do not subscribe to this view. On the contrary, I consider the American school system, despite its host of problems, to be second to none in the world.

I believe, however, that our schools require programs of positive action to meet the challenges ahead. These are not the times to sit on the sidelines with the excuse that no action can be taken until all the facts are in. *All* the facts won't be in, I fear, until sometime after Judgment Day! Certainly, we need research to keep us abreast of current actualities and theory, but research by itself can never be our sole guide. It can never be a substitute for thought and experience.

Our first priority is to break free of stereotypes, to free ourselves and our students from rigid habits of thought. These are times to discover new truths and to use old ones in new ways. Taking with us the best from the old ways, and with confidence in ourselves and our system and our students, we must try now to find new paths. □

College Teaching Effectiveness

THE RESULTS OF A SURVEY OF 4,484 COLLEGE STUDENTS

ERNEST McDANIEL, *professor of education, and* **JOHN F. FELDHUSEN,** *professor of education and psychology, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.*

□ **For years there has been wide speculation about** the possible relationship between teaching effectiveness and the writing and research activities of college instructors. On the basis of a reliable study developed by the Purdue Course and Instructor Evaluation Foundation, we now have responses from 4,484 college students with regard to the teaching effectiveness of 76 university professors.

We shall discuss the results of our study in relation to several questions:

• What is the relationship between authorship and the instructional effectiveness of college instructors?

Results indicate that instructors whom the students regard as most effective are those who write no books —or who limit their roles as paper and article writers to second authorship (that which does not involve primary responsibility for the writing assignment) rather than accepting regular and demanding writing assignments.

This finding is contrary to the common assumption that authors, through scholarly examination of problems in their disciplines, gain increased understanding of subject matter and therefore do a better job of teaching. However, the finding is understandable in light of the fact that writing takes time—lots of it. When an instructor has publishing deadlines that must be met, he may well neglect his teaching in order to fulfill scholarly obligations.

• What is the relationship between research activity, as indicated by grants received, and teaching effectiveness?

The answer is: None.

The explanation of why research activities (as opposed to writing) do not affect teaching effectiveness probably lies in the fact that researchers (unlike authors) usually receive grants that include funds to hire assistants. Furthermore, researchers often have the necessary funds to hire replacements for some of their teaching duties, while authors rarely enjoy this advantage. Thus, chances are, the researcher is less burdened than the author, and as a result, his teaching is not adversely affected.

• What is the relationship between instructional effectiveness and the time an instructor spends in counseling students and supervising laboratories?

Student responses indicate that time spent in these areas has a *positive* effect on an instructor's effectiveness. On the other hand, time spent in lecturing or in administrative work has a negative effect on teaching effectiveness.

These findings are entirely logical: Administration and lecturing are both occupations that keep students at arm's length, while counseling and laboratory supervision provide personal services to students and provide close contact between students and professors. Furthermore, the student counseling activities and laboratory supervision enable students to perceive an instructor's good qualities. The teacher, in turn, learns about individual students and this helps him perfect his teaching skills.

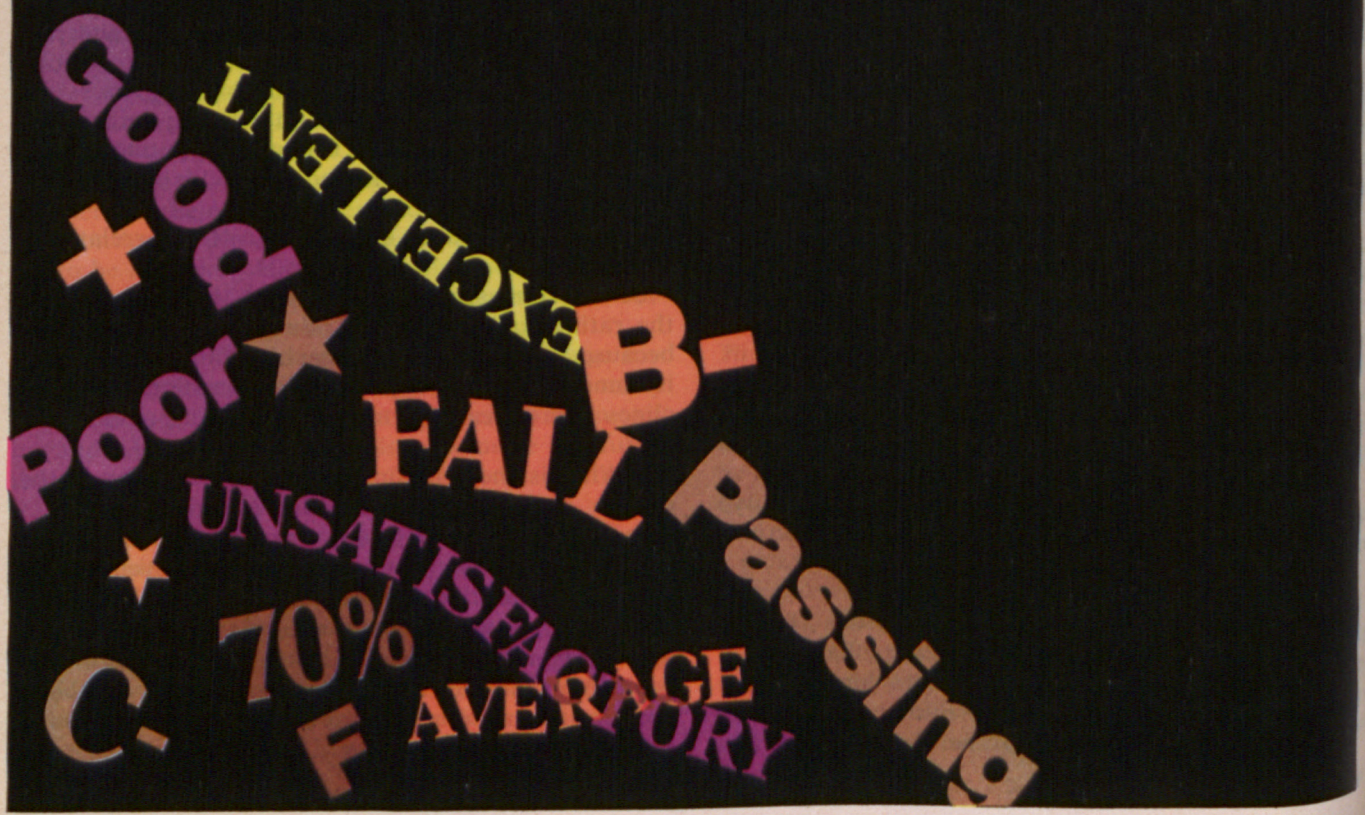
• What is the cause and effect in this correlational research?

One can only speculate about such things as whether the ratings of authors and administrators are lower because they neglect their teaching or whether there is some role-selection process in operation which inclines poorer teachers to authorship and administration.

• What is the relationship between the size of the college class and instructional effectiveness?

Our research clearly indicates that the larger the class the lower the ratings of teacher effectiveness. The reason may be that an instructor is less able to develop rapport with individual students when he has a large class. In addition, he is less able to obtain feedback about the needs of individual students—certainly the kind of information that could guide his teaching into more effective channels. □

I OPPOSE TESTING, MARKING, & GRADING



says JOHN HOLT, *educator and author.*

☐ **As a short-time teacher at the Harvard Graduate** School of Education and at the University of California at Berkeley, I was able to give a Pass (in the first case) or an A (in the second) to all students who signed up for the courses, regardless of what they did or did not do in class. I would rather have given no grades at all.

In all my previous teaching, I have had to give regular grades. That is, I have had to say that some students were better than others. At first I thought this a good thing, believing, as many teachers do, that grades, particularly low ones, spurred students on to work harder. Later I came to feel that grading was bad. But it was a matter of give grades or don't teach, and, for many reasons that seemed good at the time, I wanted to teach. In time, I arrived at a rule that seemed to work: If you must grade, grade as seldom, as privately, and as easily as possible.

Specifically, if we have to submit a grade or report card once a term, or quarter, or semester, that should be the *only* mark we give the child in that period. How then do we get the grade? When I taught ninth-, tenth-, and eleventh-grade English, I graded my students on what I felt to be a cross section of their best work.

What sense does an average grade make in a course like English? Do we average a serious writer's best work against his worst? If I assigned a paper and a student did badly on it, this only showed that this was the wrong assignment for him—one that didn't enable him to show what ability he had. My remedy was to give a wide enough variety of choices and opportunities for writing, reading, and talking. In that way, everyone would have a fairly good chance of showing his best talents.

It is not just in English that it makes no sense to figure students' grades by taking an average of all their daily or weekly work. It makes no sense in any subject.

Take the case of two children who are trying to learn, say, long division. One child gets it at the first crack. All his papers in long division are excellent. At the end of the marking period, he gets an A. The other child has a hard struggle. His first papers are very bad. Only after many failures does he finally catch on. At the end of the marking period, he too does a perfect paper. In a class where daily grades are averaged, his perfect final paper will be averaged against all the failures he made while he was learning, and he will be given a low or even a failing mark.

This is idiotic and unfair. The class aim is to learn long division, not to see who can learn it in the fewest number of tries. Anyone who learns it, however many times he fails along the way, should get a perfect mark for that part of the course.

We should also mark as privately as we can. Only the teacher and the student, not the other children, should know what marks anyone is getting. No big 100's or 60's or A's or E's on individual papers, no gold stars on the walls. If, for official records, we have to make a kind of pecking order of the children, we should make it as invisible as possible. If the children feel they are all in some kind of race and if everyone knows who are winners and who are losers, the losers are going to try to protect what little is left of their pride and dignity by getting out of the race, by refusing to run. Not only that, but a lot of them are going to try to put a stop to the whole race—which is what much of our school troubles today are about.

We should grade, if we have to, as leniently as possible, particularly at the low end. Put a safety net under everybody. To my ninth-, tenth-, and eleventh-graders I made it clear that nobody in class would get lower than a C−, whatever they might or might not do. This at least freed them from the burden of failure. Free of it, they went on to do good work, very often better work than they had done before.

There is absolutely no excuse for a teacher or a school to fail a student. We are there for them, not they for us. If a student spends a year in my class and learns something, I have no right to fail him. I must find a way to give him some positive and legitimate credit for whatever he has learned. If at the end of a year he has truly learned nothing, then I—not he—am the one who should be failed.

People ask angrily, "What good does it do to promote a child from one grade to the next if he doesn't know what he is supposed to know?" One answer is that most children who fool their teachers into thinking that they know what they are supposed to know don't really know it and have to be "taught" it or most of it all over again.

A more important reason is that the child who is kept back against his will is hardly ever helped and is almost always badly hurt by the experience. Sometimes children who feel themselves unready to go ahead may ask or even agree freely to repeat a year. Sometimes—not always—this helps them to get more confidence and to do better in their later schooling. But children who are kept back against their will are made to feel stupid and thus are even less able to learn the following year whatever it was that caused them trouble the year before. I have known a number of children who at one time or another had been kept back a year or more. All were poor students and afraid of school. Almost all of them still did not know the things they had been kept back to learn.

We hear all the time how terrible it is that 13- or 14-year-olds in the seventh or eighth grade do not know how to read. It is terrible, and all the more so because the fault is not theirs but the school's, for reasons made very clear in George Dennison's *The Lives of Children.* But would these children be more likely to learn to read if they were surrounded by six-year-olds?

It is worth noting (and this experience has been duplicated by many others) that the only way in which Dennison could get 12-year-old José to have reading lessons at all was to have the lessons alone, behind a

Adapted from the book, *What Do I Do Monday?* by John Holt. Copyright © 1970 by John Holt. Published by E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., and reprinted and adapted with their permission.

locked door, so that none of the other children, whose own insecurities would surely have caused them to make fun of him, could see his struggles and failures.

In any case, we are simply not honest when we say we are keeping a child back in order to help him. We do it to punish. If we think otherwise, we are just fooling ourselves. The children are not fooled.

Teachers quite often ask me: "If I give Jimmy a better grade than he deserves, won't it make it harder for him when he gets into his next class and can't live up to that standard?"

There are two worries here. The first might be put something like this: "If I give Jimmy a good mark this year and next year he doesn't do nearly so well, won't everyone think I am running an easy class or am a poor teacher?" We say that we want to help children who are doing badly in school to do better, but we all too often assume that they are incapable of improving. In such circumstances, teachers are only being realistic in thinking that giving bad marks to children is a way of protecting themselves.

Teachers also fear what may happen to Jimmy next year if they grade him easily this year. To this I say, "Make no mistake about it, if you have to send children on to their next class with labels around their necks, the better labels you can give them, the better off they will be." Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson in their book, *Pygmalion in the Classroom*, have shown clearly that when we expect children to do well they are more likely to do well than when we expect them to do badly.

If Jimmy comes into that next teacher's class with an A stuck on him, the teacher will welcome Jimmy to his class, make him feel at home, give him every encouragement. Given this kind of treatment, Jimmy will in fact do much better work than he was used to doing. But suppose that his work is not as good as this teacher would like. The teacher will think, "Perhaps he is having a little trouble getting adjusted; I must be patient and encouraging."

If on the other hand Jimmy comes to this teacher with a D hanging around his neck, the teacher will think, "I wonder what's wrong with this one and what kind of trouble he will give me." These attitudes will not be lost on Jimmy.

Grading as seldom as possible has a side advantage, a fringe benefit. It will free us from the dull and useless drudgery of correcting papers. If papers have to be corrected, we should let the children correct their own. Give them an answer book or answer sheet. (Most publishers of textbooks that have problems in them supply the answers.)

We can get calculating machines—electric ones now cost as little as $60—and teach students to run them.

Or we might have the children make up their own answer sheets as a class project. This will force them to think about the vital question, "How can we tell whether an answer is right?" If they use a machine, for example, how can they tell whether the machine is running properly? How does the supermarket know that its cash registers are working properly? How does the bank check its computers? Such questions might lead a class into looking at double-entry bookkeeping, a subject so important and interesting and so connected with the world outside, that it ought not to be saved for a few students studying accounting.

In *The Underachieving School*, I have said why I think spelling tests, and indeed most of what we do about spelling, are foolish and harmful or, as they say in Washington, counter-productive. Meanwhile, if we must give spelling tests, let the children correct them by looking up each word, as they spell it, in the dictionary. If they can't find it, either they are using the dictionary incorrectly or they can't spell the word.

First of all, let them find whether they are looking at the right place in the dictionary. Obviously, if they can't do that, the dictionary isn't going to be of much help to them in spelling. If they are using the dictionary properly and still can't find the word, that means they have spelled it wrong. What then?

For most children, I would tell them the correct spelling. To a certain kind of child, I might say, "How many other ways can you think of to spell it that would sound right, that I could read and know what the word was saying? Write a few of them, pick the one that looks most likely, and see if you can find it." Or I might tell him to ask one of his friends. This would confront him with the interesting problem: How do I tell which of my friends are good spellers when I don't spell well myself?

I deeply believe that all this messing with spelling is foolish. If children read for pleasure and to find out things they want to find out and write in order to say what they want to say, they will, before long, spell better than most people do now.

One year a student came into one of my English classes—very bright, quiet, a bit shy. At the beginning of the year, I told the class that I would not fuss about their spelling and indeed that I would only indicate or correct misspelled words on their papers if they put S's in the corner of their papers. However, after I had read a couple of papers by this student, I realized that I had a problem. His frequency of error, as they say, was about 25 words per page. Sometimes, in one paragraph, he spelled a word two or three different ways.

I began to get cold feet. I could hear a voice from the future asking me, "But why didn't you do something?" So, one day, in private, I said to this boy, "I really meant what I said about not bugging you about spelling, but I can see you have something of a problem. I have worked with kids who spelled badly and I think I know some tricks that may work. If you would like some help, don't hesitate to ask."

He looked at me a while, then heaved a great sigh up from his shoes, and said slowly, "I've been getting help for years."

I said, "Say no more. I won't raise the subject again, if you don't." He didn't and I didn't. He was in my class for two years, wrote a number of interesting papers, and was in other areas a brilliant student. By the end of the second year in my class, his misspelled words per page were down to five or less.

On this matter of corrections, we have our ends and means confused. We often talk and act as if children learned something in school—say, fractions—so that they could do papers about it. On the contrary, they do the papers *only* to learn something about fractions. There is *no other reason* for the papers.

So why not say: "Here is the chapter on adding fractions. Read it, ask about anything in it you don't understand, work out some of the examples in the text, and then compare them with the text. When you think you understand the chapter, do a few of the problems at the end. Then check them with your answer sheet. If you got them right, you are ready for the next chapter. If not, try them again; see if you can catch your own mistake. If you can't, come to me, and I'll try to help you find where you got off the trail."

Many people say, "But won't the children cheat?" This shows how much we, like the children, have slipped into the habit of thinking of school as a contest, a battle of wits between teachers and children, waged according to certain rules. There is no contest —or there shouldn't be.

If the children know that we are not trying to judge or trap or humiliate or defeat them, they will quickly stop trying to think of ways to outwit us. Then we can begin to do our real job, which is not proving that children are not learning, but helping them learn.

To sum up, whatever concessions we may have to make to testing, marking, and grading in the short run, in the long run it is our duty to oppose them.

As I said in an article, which I wrote for *Look* magazine (January 13, 1970), any tests that are not a personal matter between the learner and someone helping him learn, but are given instead to grade and label students for someone else's purposes (employers, colleges, anxious parents, etc.) are illegitimate and harmful. I then said that students should organize to refuse to take such tests, and that teachers should organize to refuse to give them. □

YOU MAY NOT AGREE, BUT...

We're Trapped by Degrees

says a teacher of English who prefers to remain anonymous, since he subsequently obtained a teaching position in a school system discussed in the article.

□ **The next trend in education may be that teachers will** refuse to work for advanced degrees because doing so can price them out of the profession.

Recently I moved across the country and applied for a new teaching position in the East. Everything looked promising. My undergraduate transcript showed the necessary hours in education and quite acceptable grades. I'm in my thirties' with several years of teaching experience. Furthermore, the principal interviewing me and I seemed to agree on discipline, teachers' responsibilities, class schedules, and the course of study.

The last item discussed was salary. The principal asked two questions: "How many years have you taught?" and "It was a B.A. wasn't it?" I answered, "Twelve years" and "No." I had just completed my M.A. The schedule's answer to this looked good: $11,200.

At this point the principal laid down his pencil, looked straight at my left elbow, and said, "I'm afraid this district won't go that high for an English teacher if we can get someone else for less."

I was stunned.

Another principal told me about a relatively large school district in a teacher-affluent area that has a deliberate policy of filling a fourth of its faculty positions with first-year teachers—because it keeps the budget down. A recent newspaper article quoted an administrator who admitted that the same practices are widespread in his state. Many systems hire inexperienced English or social studies teachers with their first degrees, he stated, because they cost less. And although the teacher shortage is supposedly over, emergency certificates are still honored in some places.

I know some of the answers given to avoid looking at these practices: Young teachers have to start somewhere; tenure protects the teacher; the practice of keeping experienced teachers in a district makes for better schools; only the teacher who moves suffers. Yet I am concerned about these practices.

Salary schedules reward experience and education. Implicit in their design is the principle that experience and education help to produce better teachers. The schedule's purpose is defeated when the more expensive teacher, the one with experience and education, is turned away in favor of the cheaper teacher—one who lacks those very qualities that the bargaining parties designated for reward.

There's no use to use new measurements. The person who hires the less qualified teacher to save money is saying that the *quality* of education doesn't matter.

For two decades we have blamed insufficiences in the schools on the teacher shortage. If we now have enough teachers to demand qualification of all, and even to raise standards, the big question is this: How can we improve schools if districts refuse to pay for higher standards? How will we cut class size, provide special courses, and allow controlled evaluation of new procedures if the hands that hold the money cannot be pried open?

Today we are beginning to see clearly how the public really views education. If my experience becomes common, teachers will hesitate about returning to school—at least until they are securely on tenure. They will miss the experience of being on the other side of the desk again. Tenure itself may become less secure. Salary schedules may drop. Bright young men will drift away from the profession.

Teachers are not making these value decisions: School boards and administrators are. But teachers are the ones who must reassert that the quality of teaching does matter. Obviously, it is in our own interest to do so. But, more important, it is in the interest of the profession—and of our students. □

◆ *How do you feel about this statement? Can you offer solutions? Send us your reactions for possible use in a future issue.*

CAMPING WITH INNER-CITY KIDS

ROBERT BLUME, *assistant professor of elementary education, College of Education, University of Florida, Gainesville, and* **DELORYS E. BLUME,** *teacher, Archer (Florida) Community School, and former first grade teacher, A. Quinn Jones Laboratory Center, Gainesville.*

□ **Our family has been camping annually for 14 years.** We love it. That's why my wife and I decided last year to take some of the disadvantaged children in her class on our next camping trip. These youngsters have few experiences which they really enjoy. We were sure they'd find camping an exciting adventure. The only question was: Which children should we take?

Our Apache sleeps four, the number in our family, and the station wagon sleeps another two. But there were about 20 first graders in the class. After much discussion and mooching among our neighbors, we came up with an extra tent and a dozen blankets, and before we knew it, we had scheduled three week-ends of camping with five to six kids each time.

Needless to say, we had some misgivings. The venture was a first for both the Blume family and the first graders. We weren't sure what to expect. Would the children be afraid? Would they get hurt, or lost, or upset over the different style of living? Could we even keep track of them? We didn't think they would be difficult to handle, but we invited another couple to camp next door—just in case we needed help.

All our worries were for nothing; the children were not only enthusiastic but well-behaved. One or two did wake up during the night, but helping them find the bathroom was no more difficult than it was when our own daughters were small. The most important lesson we learned was that disadvantaged children are very much like the two we brought into the world. They like to jump in the waves, dig in the sand, and roast marshmallows over a fire. They track sand into a tent and are sometimes too excited to go to sleep. How naïve we were to have expected anything else!

The effect of this experience on the children can only be described as dramatic. They enjoyed themselves and didn't want to go home. They kept saying we were nice people. For us, the trip was less relaxing than camping usually is (especially the first weekend), but it was much more rewarding than any we can remember.

One of the big worries we'd had before we took our first trip was the reaction of other campers. After all, children are noisy in groups of five and six. Moreover, these are black, and we live in the deep South. Although the state parks in Florida have been officially desegregated for some time, few blacks actually use them. How would other campers feel about our group?

The friendly interest shown by our neighbors was a most pleasant surprise. One afternoon an elderly couple was sitting on the beach next to where we were watching the kids swim. What were they thinking? Do they disapprove of our whole setup, we wondered? We kept counting children—just to be sure all five were in sight. One boy needed a towel and was sent back to the tent to get it.

The old man immediately called over the roar of the ocean, "Hey! There are only four! Where is the other one?" We assured him they were all accounted for and then sighed happily: Here was a stranger helping to watch out for the children. This experience was the first of many we had during our three week-ends of camping at Florida's Flagler Beach State Park.

The most important outcome we had hoped to achieve was an improved self-concept for each child. Psychologists tell us, of course, that one of the most important missing elements in disadvantaged children and the other young people who have difficulty with school achievement is a positive, hopeful attitude toward themselves.

We wanted to see if an experience such as this could help children gain a more positive self-concept. The elements we hoped would contribute to this goal included the opportunity to be part of a small group of friendly people, to be a contributing member of that group, to have vast stretches of space to call their own, and to be with adults who arranged activities for their pleasure.

Outcomes were certainly not conclusive. We don't know for sure that every child developed more positive attitudes, but the behavior changes we observed in following weeks indicated that it did happen.

The children fought less. One boy who had never spoken above a whisper in school began to talk. The general level of hostility was lowered; children became more friendly toward their teacher. Parents reported that the children talked about camping a great deal at home.

We *do* know that there were many learning outcomes from the two-day experience. The children learned something about the various kinds of sea life which wash up on the shore, and noted variations of the ocean at low and high tides. They learned the relationship between time and distance—the 75-mile trip was the longest journey most of them had ever taken—and about the variation of temperatures between night and day. When it was their turn to be the cooks, they counted the paper plates and cups needed for the group. They counted the shells they found in the sand. They learned how to cook hot dogs over an open fire.

One group witnessed the launching of Apollo 13 from our vantage point on the beach some 75 miles north of Cape Kennedy. Another visited the ruins of an old plantation near the camp.

One weekend we watched porpoises playing and jumping just a few yards from where we had been swimming. Even observing a sunset and a sunrise is a unique experience for a child who lives his entire life in a city slum. Flying a kite helped children learn about the variation in wind direction during the day and night along the seashore.

All these experiences—and many others—will contribute to future studies. More important, however, was learning firsthand that jumping big waves is fun, that hot dogs roasted over charcoal are delicious, that warm sand between your toes feels good.

The weekend was also a worthwhile learning experience for our entire family. We so easily fall into the trap of seeing our own lives and problems as the most important in the world. To see a child who is thrilled at the prospect of getting all the milk he can drink or one who takes great pride in possession of a bag of shells he has collected helps put the world back into perspective. Perhaps this is the reason for an improved teacher-child relationship following camping.

The camping experience was so successful that we are going to try the whole thing again. We recommend the activity for other teachers who have the equipment (or who can borrow from their neighbors), experienced teen-agers to help, a nearby camping ground, and love for the outdoors. Once you've tried it, you'll never be quite the same again. And neither will the small group of kids you take along. □

DISCRIMINATION AND

□ **Since the Brown vs. Board of** Education decision of 1954, no two words have been the source of more heated emotion than desegregation and integration. In recent months, the controversy actually seems to have escalated. From NEA Task Force findings, newspaper articles, and numerous other reports from observers of race relations throughout the nation, a detailed and chilling report of abuses and inequities in the implementation of court desegregation decisions has developed.

These incidents of inequitable action have, in many cases, strong ethical implications. The Committee on Professional Ethics is deeply concerned that all educators become aware of the relationship of their Code of Ethics to the rights of minorities.

Two sections of the Code of Ethics speak directly to the subject of racial discrimination: Principle I, section 5, deals with the educator's responsibility to children; Principle III, section 1, treats the educator's responsibility to his profession.

Principle I, section 5, states that the educator "shall not on the ground of race, color, creed, or national origin exclude any student from participation in or deny him benefits under any program, nor grant any discriminatory consideration or advantage." Among the numerous acts which seem to constitute violations of this Principle, the following stand out as rather glaring examples.

- In some schools, black students and white students have been placed in different wings of the building, thus retaining segregation under the guise of desegregation.
- In the most extreme examples, some schools actually adopted separate bell systems to guarantee that white and black students would have no contact at all.
- Many schools have restricted traditional privileges to white students only. In one school, white students were allowed to leave campus for lunch; black students were not.
- Dual bus routes were often arranged so that black students would not ride with white students, usually at great inconvenience to the black students.
- In a school where black and white students were integrated within the classroom, but were seated on opposite sides of the room, a teacher was reported to turn her back regularly to black students and to address the white students.

Where dual education associations are developed along racial lines or where fair treatment through grievance procedures is denied individuals solely on the basis of race, potential violations of Principle III, section 1, have occurred. This section states that an educator "shall not discriminate on the ground of race, color, creed, or national origin for membership in professional organizations, nor interfere with the free participation of colleagues in the affairs of their association." Fortunately, however, this seems to be one area where real progress is being made. Educators are bringing their associations together and opening up the lines of communication.

An educator who needlessly batters a child's sense of self-esteem stands in violation of Principle I, section 4, which reads that he "shall conduct professional business in such a way that he does not expose the student to unnecessary embarrassment or disparagement."

Disparaging words are heard everywhere. The following examples, which are taken from verified sources, are merely intended to be representative, not definitive, of the types of action the Code is intended to counteract.

- A principal in one school reportedly established special classes for students identified as "slow learners" when the school was integrated. Only black children were assigned to these classes, and no white children who were recommended for these classes by their teachers were assigned there. The implication is obvious: Only blacks are slow learners.
- A national magazine reported the use of English language intelligence tests for Spanish-speaking students in a western state which resulted in a disproportionate number of Spanish American children being shunted into classes for the mentally retarded and being labeled as such. This practice may have some educational justifications, or it may be just a subtle method of discrimination. Research indicates that membership in low ability groups made up exclusively of minority group students has a serious effect on a student's self-image. Since other methods are available for providing remedial education, this practice should be watched.
- A principal who was accused by some of his students of using derog-

PROFESSIONAL ETHICS

atory names for black students spoke to an NEA Task Force member of the "monkeys in the yard."

• In an eastern state, a teacher commented on the new style of clothing to a colleague. This teacher then asked his colleague, "Did you get those pants off a nigger?"

• In a western school, a teacher was heard telling a group of students, "Get your nigger --- out of the halls."

These examples are extreme, but they point out the kinds of thoughtless disregard for human self-respect which our Code specifically speaks against.

Principle I, section 1, says that an educator "shall not without just cause restrain the student from independent action in his pursuit of learning, and shall not without just cause deny the student access to varying points of view."

Despite this obligation, the Committee has heard reports of classes in which the interest of black students in Negro history and other black studies was suppressed, current events publications were censored because of articles concerning black activism, and teachers were disciplined by their superiors for allowing Negro History Week to be observed. Where teachers were threatened with discipline for including matters of interest to blacks in their course of study, it is likely that Code Principle III, section 3, was also violated.

This section states that the educator "shall not use coercive means or promise special treatment in order to influence professional decisions of colleagues." Coercion has been used to get teachers to sponsor private clubs on their own time so that minority group students would not be able to participate in what once were school-related activities.

Several instances of acts which were likely to harm children were cited despite the Code's requirement to the contrary. Principle I, section 3, states that the educator "shall make reasonable effort to protect the student from conditions harmful to learning, or to health and safety."

As communities have faced desegregation in areas where white students are in the minority, private academies have frequently been organized and white students have fled from the public schools. Because of inadequate financial support and insufficient time to prepare for the opening of these instant private schools, educators have allowed students and employees of private schools to remove textbooks and supplies from public schools for use of students in the private schools. The public school students have reported having to share textbooks and having to use obsolete or worn-out learning resources while watching cartons of new textbooks and materials being carted away.

In one school, administrators assigned black students a separate building on the school grounds that lacked adequate sanitary and water facilities. School officials took no action to correct the deficiencies, and the teacher was able to provide water for his students only by a makeshift waterline.

The children of minority groups are not the only ones who suffer from the actions of educators who violate their Code of Ethics. Principle IV, section 1, states that the educator "shall apply for, accept, offer, or assign a position of responsibility on the basis of professional preparation and legal qualifications."

The Task Force teams heard reports of a highly qualified black principal who was demoted to an assistant principalship under an inexperienced principal with substandard preparation. Numerous educators were demoted without their work having been evaluated in the manner upheld by the profession, frequently with no cause being shown. Former black administrators were given meaningless jobs with no responsibility or authority despite their qualifications. A black teacher was denied a vacant position solely on the grounds of his race and without regard for his qualifications and record of previous performance.

Additionally, many times teachers are placed in positions for which they are not prepared with the purpose of later firing them for "failure to perform duties satisfactorily."

Article I, section 13, of the NEA Bylaws makes adherence to the Code of Ethics a condition of membership. The Code is clear in its position that educators have a major obligation to safeguard basic rights. With these concerns in mind, each member should give thought to his own actions, testing them against the Code, and committing himself to fulfillment of his professional obligations.

—NEA Committee on Professional Ethics.

COMMAND OF KNOWLEDGE SHOULD BE THE PRIMARY OBJECTIVE OF EDUCATION

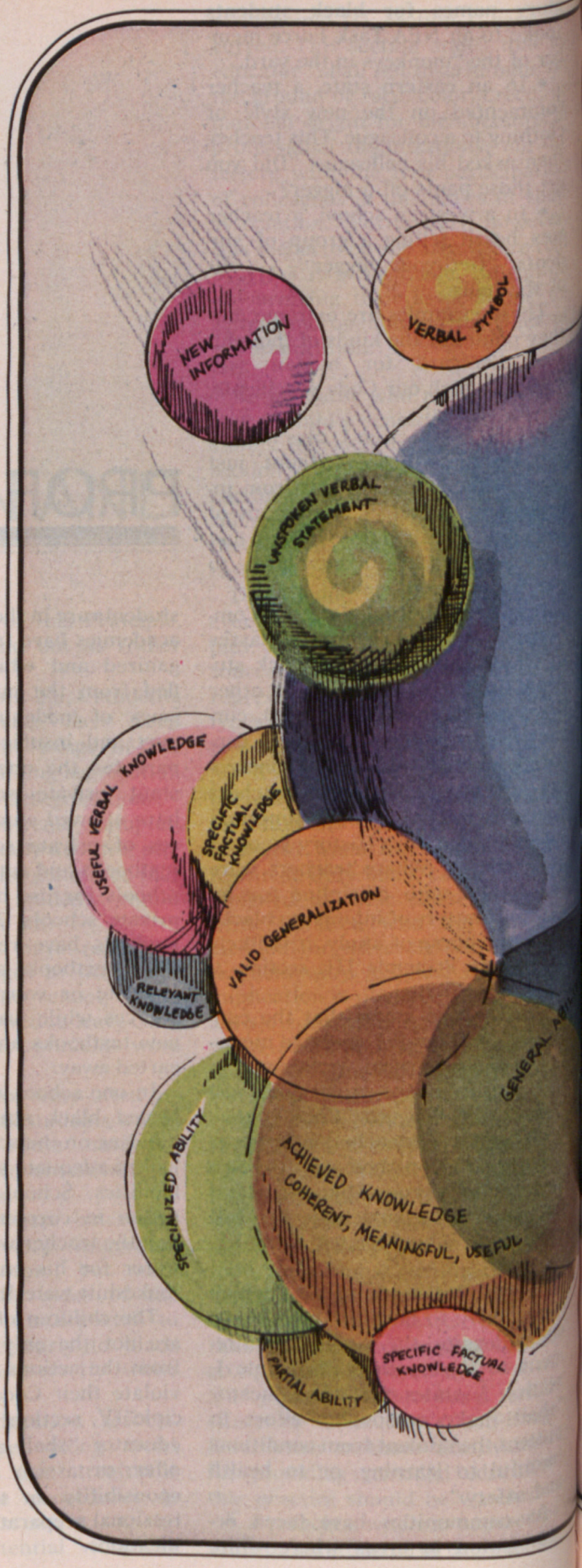
ROBERT L. EBEL, *professor of education and psychology, Michigan State University, East Lansing.*

♦ *Next month the* JOURNAL *will present a differing viewpoint on this topic.*

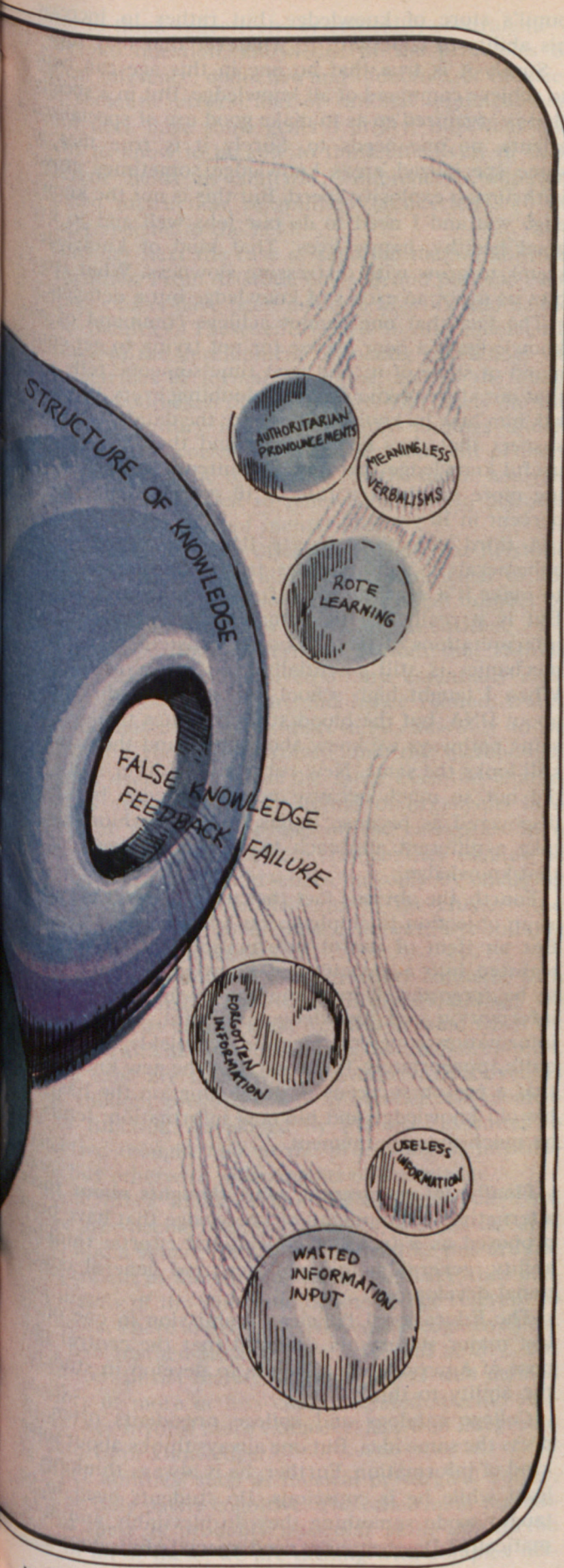
□ **In my opinion, the essence of achievement in most** school subjects is command of useful verbal knowledge. If this is true, then it follows that the schools should direct their primary efforts toward increases in the pupil's cognitive competence, not toward his personal adjustment nor toward reconstruction of the society in which he lives; toward the cultivation of resources for effective behavior, not toward the direct shaping of the behavior itself; toward structures of useful knowledge on various important subjects, not toward the development of general mental abilities.

The essence of the argument in support of command of knowledge as the primary objective of education is that only two means are available to the schools in their efforts to help human beings attain the desired ends of personal adjustment, social betterment, and behavioral effectiveness. One is to foster the cognitive development of their pupils; the other is to use the processes of conditioning to establish automatic, subrational responses. Whatever our ultimate goals may be—personal, social, economic, political, ethical, or spiritual—the only means schools can use to reach these goals are either cognitive development or conditioned behavior. Different ultimate goals call for different content to be learned, not for different methods of learning.

Those who agree that schools should seek above all to develop cognitive competence do not all agree on the nature of that competence. Some say, as I do, that it consists mainly in command of useful verbal knowledge. Others contend that the essence of cognitive competence is ability to think reflectively, critically, and straight and that to achieve this ability, the student's mental abilities of analysis and synthesis, of reason and judgment, must be cultivated specifically and directly.



Dr. Ebel spoke at greater length on this topic at the 1969 Invitational Conference on Testing Problems sponsored by the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey.



The difference between these views is, I believe, more than a semantic confusion. It does make a difference, it seems to me, whether the essential educational task is to help the pupil build a structure of knowledge or to develop some general mental abilities that will function effectively over a wide range of informational contents. Our choice of one or the other of these alternatives makes an important difference in how we teach and how we write test items.

At this point it may be useful to explain what we mean by the term *knowledge.* Whatever a person experiences, directly or vicariously, and remembers can become a part of his knowledge. It will become so if it is integrated into his own structure of knowledge. But this the learner must do himself. It cannot be done for him. The distinction Israel Scheffler has made [in *Harvard Educational Review,* Spring 1965] between information and knowledge may be helpful here. He says, ". . . it does not follow that the student will know these new facts simply because he has been informed; . . . knowing requires that the student earn the right to his assurance of the truth of the information in question. New *information,* in short, can be intelligibly conveyed by statements; new *knowledge* cannot."

Speaking to the same point, Kenneth E. Boulding has said [in *The Education Digest,* November 1967]:

> The growth of knowledge even in the individual is not a simple cumulative process by which information is pumped into the head and remains in a reservoir. Knowledge is a structure, and its present form always limits its possibilities of growth. Hence we get the phenomenons of "readiness" for certain kinds of knowledge at different stages of life; of wasted information input, which cannot latch onto anything in the existing knowledge structure, of false knowledge development, as the result of the acceptance of authoritarian pronouncements and the failure of feedback.

The structure of knowledge I am talking about consists of all the relevant knowledge and nothing else. Every factual detail and every generalization that can be related to other factual details and generalizations becomes part of the structure. The function of this structure, if it can be said to have a function, is to give the facts some degree of coherence and thus to make them meaningful and useful. What Darwin presented in *The Origin of Species* was such a structure. What the student finds in any good textbook of physics or economics or history is such a structure.

Earlier I proposed that the essence of achievement is command of *useful verbal knowledge.* The words *useful* and *verbal* deserve a second look. Quite naturally anyone who plans a course seeks to develop in it only those concepts and ideas and skills that he thinks will be useful to the students who take the course. And students, when they are free to do so, choose courses whose outcomes they believe will be useful to them.

Thus the natural emphasis in schooling is on useful knowledge, and probably little that is being taught anywhere can be convicted on the charge of being

totally useless. On the other hand, almost every student can find in almost every course some information that he considers useless to him. If it is truly useless, it will never get built into his structure of knowledge, and he will forget it soon.

In assessing the potential utility of some item of information, one must be on guard against expecting too much. Few facts or ideas or concepts that are not learned automatically are likely to be useful to everyone, or essential for everyone to learn.

Emphasis on programs of general education and on common tests of achievement for all students have misled some of us into believing that unless an item of information is likely to be useful to everyone it is not likely to be useful to anyone. Individuals differ more in what they learn than in how readily they learn. In neither our teaching programs nor our testing programs should we act as if differences in what is learned are unimportant or undesirable.

Next, a word about the emphasis we have placed on the importance of *verbal* knowledge. Most of our thinking is done by considering unspoken verbal statements. Without verbal symbols our thought processes would be limited and slow. For this reason, and because it can be communicated and stored so easily, verbal knowledge is a very powerful form of knowledge. What distinguishes man from other primates and other mammals is primarily the facility with which he can produce and use verbal knowledge.

That the statements we issue and receive are not always laden with meaning and that we sometimes use empty verbalisms as substitutes for knowledge must be recognized. But no one in education practices rote learning of meaningless verbalisms as a means of learning, for it is next to impossible to build a structure of knowledge in that way. Thus the danger of overemphasis on *verbal* knowledge in learning is easy to exaggerate. The inadequate structures of knowledge we so often observe probably result not from too much learning of meaningless verbalisms, but from too little learning of any kind.

Let us now consider four objections that have been raised to emphasis on knowledge in the educational process.

The first one is that knowledge alone cannot guarantee wisdom or goodness or happiness. That is true. But it is also true that the relevant knowledge a person commands can contribute substantially to the wisdom of his choices, the goodness of his behavior, the happiness of his life. What else that the schools are capable of doing can contribute more?

A second objection is based on the vast extent and rapid growth of the store of human knowledge. The task of getting command of any significant part of it—and of keeping up with new developments in even that part—seems hopeless. So teachers are told that what pupils should acquire is not knowledge but ability to learn, though this course of action would seem merely to postpone a solution to the problem of a hopelessly large amount to be learned. So too they are told that their aim should not be to increase the pupil's store of knowledge, but rather to increase his ability to cope with it, whatever that may mean.

Surely it is true that no one in this age can hope to achieve command of all knowledge. But in a society that is organized so as to make good use of specialized talents, no one needs to. Surely it is true that in some specialized areas knowledge sometimes grows with almost explosive speed. But this is not the knowledge you and I need to do our jobs well and to live good healthy, happy lives. That kind of knowledge seems to grow with distressing slowness. What troubles us is not an excess of knowledge but a deficiency.

The fact that one cannot achieve command of all knowledge is a poor excuse for not trying to get command of some of it. And next time someone tells you that our store of knowledge is doubling every 10 years, ask him how he knows. Where are the data? I strongly suspect that they do not exist and that the kind of useful knowledge that ought to interest us is increasing more nearly at a rate of 10 percent than of 100 percent in 10 years.

A third objection asserts that knowledge is too ephemeral in validity, that truth changes too fast, to make it a sensible focus for our education efforts. But is it really the facts that change? Or is it our interpretations of them? Despite Einstein, Newtonian mechanics is still essentially true as far as it goes. When I taught high school biology, we didn't know about DNA, but the blood still circulates through the same pathways we knew about then, and the crayfish still looks the same. New curriculums differ from the old not so much because new knowledge has been discovered as because it has become fashionable to take a different approach to a different segment of that knowledge.

Fourth, the obvious fact that people forget is raised as an objection to emphasis on knowledge in schools. But an item of useful information that is well integrated into a structure of knowledge is not likely to be forgotten. Here again the distinction between information and knowledge is useful. Much of the information a person receives is quickly, and often quite appropriately, forgotten. But the new knowledge that a person succeeds in developing, on the basis of his old knowledge and his new information, tends to be much more permanent.

Finally, let me present some thoughts about three alternatives to command of knowledge that have been proposed as a focus of educational efforts: thinking ability, general mental abilities, and general educational development.

The Educational Policies Commission in one of its last major statements declared that the central purpose of American education is to develop in students the ability to think.

College catalogs and college presidents often express the same idea. But one always thinks about some kind of information. Further, he is always thinking, at least while he is conscious. Do students need to be taught to do something they do inevitably and automatically? Do they even need special skills to enable

them to think reflectively, or critically, or straight?

Beyond question, knowledge of the principles of logical inference, deductive and inductive, of fallacies and semantic errors, and of rational argument and proof does have some general utility. But what one needs to know to be able to think effectively in such different fields as statistical inference, computer-assisted instruction, or military tactics tends to be largely specific to the field.

Consider next the case of separate mental abilities or faculties. From Aristotle onward, and perhaps even before, efforts have been made to identify and define these faculties. These efforts led in the nineteenth century to the development of faculty psychology, to the doctrines of formal discipline, and to the imaginative hypotheses of phrenology. But early in the twentieth century negative research findings undermined these theories. Then the development of mental tests and of the techniques for the factor analysis of the test scores led to renewed efforts to discover the "essential traits of mental life."

They have not been discovered, and what Aristotle himself suspected is gradually becoming clear to all: That they probably do not exist as a small number of independent biological or psychological entities.

Thus the various patterns of factors that various investigators have "discovered" are essentially clusters of somewhat similar, and hence related, traits. They do not exist to be discovered, but only to be defined by the tests involved and the methods of analysis used. They have the same essential characteristics as one of the groupings of organisms in a biological taxonomy or one of the categories in a library classification system. Hence they cannot be developed as abstract essences but only by enlarging and strengthening the elements in the cluster. And this can only be done, may I repeat, by building structures of knowledge.

The term *abilities* is used in many contexts with diverse meanings. To avoid misunderstanding, we need to specify clearly what we have in mind when we use the term. The kinds of abilities that, in our opinion, do not exist are those which have been conceived as basic thought processes, few in number and elemental in function, developed by practice, essential to reflective thought and to the processing of information, but otherwise independent of knowledge.

Some other kinds of abilities obviously do exist. There are specific cognitive abilities, such as the ability to find a square root. But abilities like this are not independent of knowledge. On the contrary, they consist mainly of the command of knowledge relevant to a process. There are much more general cognitive abilities like mathematical ability or verbal ability. But these too consist mainly of more or less well defined clusters of more or less closely related specific abilities. They involve more extensive, less well integrated structures of knowledge.

Other abilities, such as musical or surgical ability, may be only partly cognitive. The other main ingredient in these is probably muscular skill. But in the case of all of these, we are dealing with complex networks of elements and relationships. None of them can be properly considered as indivisible elements of behavior whose combinations and interactions produce all of the complex manifestations of behavior we observe.

Now a word concerning the kind of general educational development that is sometimes offered as a superior alternative to command of knowledge: It consists mainly of a relatively small number of broad generalizations and involves little or no knowledge of specific facts. It allows the same ends (i.e., generalizations) to be reached by using quite different content means. I find it difficult to accept the virtue of these characteristics. Valid generalizations are useful elements in any structure of knowledge, but, it seems to me, they must be a part of a structure. I do not trust a man's generalization if he cannot give an illustration of what he means by it or cannot present specific evidence in support of it.

Nor can I agree that what is essentially learned in studying literature is something general like an understanding of the human predicament, rather than an understanding of the predicament of a particular individual like Holden Caulfield. (Is it really conceivable that those who read *Jane Eyre* learn essentially the same things about human beings as those who read *Portnoy's Complaint*?)

Now, what does all this mean for teaching and for the testing of educational achievement?

It means that we should state most of our immediate educational objectives in terms of achieved knowledge or specific abilities, not in terms of desired behavior, general abilities, or adjustment.

It means that we should recognize ability to think—reflectively, critically, and straight—for what it really is in essence: the application of specific factual knowledge to specific problems to reach sound conclusions.

It means that we should discontinue our search for "the essential traits of mental life," or for "the dimensions of achievement," since they probably are not there to be found.

It means that we can stop paying even lip service to that second, always troublesome, dimension of our two-way-grid test blueprints—the one labeled "abilities" or "objective"—and that we should concentrate more on the other dimension—the one labeled "subject matter" or "content"—to achieve an adequate sampling of the most useful knowledge.

It means that we should give up the notion that problems of wide-scale testing of educational achievement, in the face of diverse curriculums and content, can be solved adequately by using tests of general educational development which seek to emphasize general abilities and to be indifferent to mastery of specific content.

To restate briefly in conclusion: The cultivation of mental abilities is not an alternative to development of command of knowledge. If a mental ability can be developed, the best way to develop it is through command of knowledge relevant to the task. The soul of thought can exist only in a body of knowledge. □

the notes

ROBERT C. LONGE, *chairman, English department, Southfield-Lathrup Senior High School, Lathrup Village, Michigan.*

□ **Back in the middle fifties I had my first teaching** job as a substitute in an inner-city school. About two-thirds of the students were of Polish extraction, and most of the remaining third were Negroes. Since I was neither, I had problems, particularly in the primary grades. Therefore, when I was assigned a fourth grade for two weeks, I knew I might have a few headaches.

The first day went smoothly enough; in fact, the children seemed largely indifferent to my presence, except for one black girl named Debra. Every so often I would find her staring at me with fierce hatred. I recognized the look. It said: "I know you hate me, so I'm going to hate you twice as much."

When I arrived in class the next day, I found a folded sheet of paper on my desk addressed to MR. LONG. (The writer had dropped the *e* from the end of my name.) Inside was a brief printed message, an obscene directive that the author had probably seen scrawled on a lavatory wall. The spelling was accurate, indicating a good background in phonics.

I noticed that all the pupils were watching for my reaction. I stifled my instinct to crumple the paper and hurl it into the wastebasket. Instead, I refolded it and placed it in my pocket. Then I smiled and said, "Okay, now, let's get to work. Take out your reading workbooks." Everyone got busy except Debra; she stared at me.

I received similar notes on Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday. Each message was printed, each was obscene, and each differed only slightly from the others. I reacted to every one the same way: I read the note, put it in my pocket, and smiled at the class. Some of the pupils smiled back. But not Debra. My smiling reaction to the notes was not some clever psychological scheme; I simply had no idea of what to do about them.

During the second week, I received a note on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday. Then, on Wednesday afternoon Debra got into a fistfight with Gretchen over the ownership of a pencil. I broke up the fight, listened to both sides of the story, awarded the disputed pencil to Gretchen, and gave a new one to Debra. After examining her new pencil, Debra looked at Gretchen and then glared at me. She broke the pencil and screamed at me, "I hate you, I hate you, I hate you."

The entire class was silent, an extremely abnormal condition for that particular class. I was silent too as I looked at Debra's hostile stare. I had not intended that the long pause be dramatic; I was just searching my mind for something appropriate to say. At last I blurted out a variation of a line I had heard more than once in late night movies: "That's all right, Debbie. I like *you* enough for both of us."

A ripple of laughter bubbled through the classroom, and I think even Debra had trouble suppressing a smile.

It seemed that my tactics were gradually winning the class over, but, nevertheless, I knew there would be another note waiting for me the next day.

My habit had been to come to class at 8:25, by which time many of the pupils were already milling around in the room. On Thursday morning I decided to confront my "pen pal" so I arrived at 8:20, just in time to see Debra drop a folded sheet of paper on my desk as she walked toward her own. When she saw me standing at the door, she started back for my desk, but checked herself and went to her seat.

I strode over to my desk and looked at the outside of the note. MR. LONG still lacked its *e*.

The pupils all went quietly to their seats while I stared at the ceiling until 8:30 when the bell rang.

Dead silence. I looked at the faces. Some looked frightened; others, puzzled; a few, hostile. For a change, Debra was not staring at me; she was studying the top of her desk.

I drew a deep breath. "The second morning I was here, I received a note like this one." I held the note up. "It was not a very friendly greeting. Since then, I've received a note every morning. I haven't made a fuss because I thought the notes might stop. I thought the person who was writing them might realize that I was a friend—that I was trying my best to do a good job."

No one stirred. Some glanced uneasily at Debra, who was still studying her desk. The rest watched me, uncertainty in their eyes.

"I guess all of you know who wrote the notes. I know also, but I don't think I should read this one. What do you think, Debra? Suppose I just tear it up and throw it away."

Without looking up, Debra shook her head from side to side. Her reaction was unexpected. Apparently my confrontation was not going to be a success. "You *want* me to read it?"

She nodded yes. She was still looking at her desk.

I opened the note and read: "I love you." □

This true story was a prizewinner in the 1970 TODAY'S EDUCATION-READER'S DIGEST FOUNDATION Teachers' Writing Competition.

For information about a collection of outstanding short stories, including many written by teachers, see *Schools Are People* in "New NEA Publications and Audiovisual Materials" on page 69.

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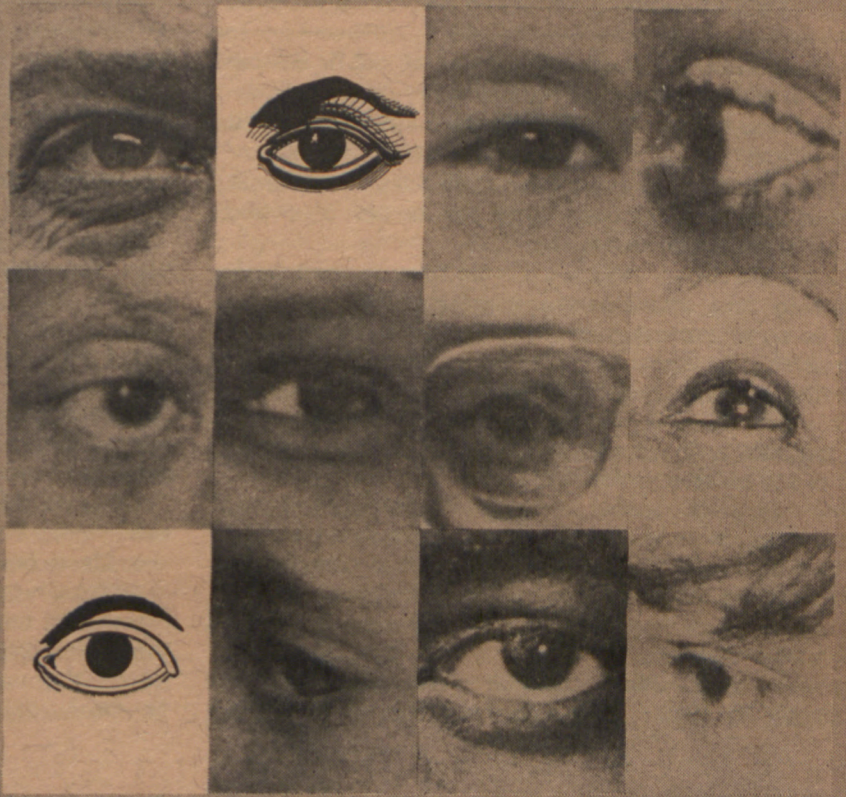
The following insert is between pages 40 and 57. It was included in the total page count, but its pages were not numbered.

accountability and the classroom teacher



ASSOCIATION OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

JOSEPH STOCKER, director of public relations and publications, Arizona Education Association, Phoenix.

□ **Accountability is the "now" word of public education.** The call for accountability has come from the President of the United States, Congress, agencies of the federal government, school boards, local school administrators, teacher preparation institutions, and other sources similarly removed from the center of public education—the classroom.

To the classroom teacher, this call for accountability —coming from individuals and groups who have had little or no recent experience in the day-to-day business of teaching in elementary and secondary schools—has sometimes sounded like an indictment and even a threat.

Teachers hearing the call have perceived the term "accountability in education" as "accountability on the part of the classroom teacher."

The issue of accountability reflects a deep and genuine apprehension on the part of the public that the schools are not doing the job they should be doing. Insistence on accountability is perhaps a logical consequence of mounting costs and rising teacher militancy. "Asking for accountability is a legitimate response of government, which wants to know how efficiently its money is being spent," said Theodore B. Dolmatch, president of the Pitman Publishing Corporation, at a conference of educational marketers and investors. "It is a legitimate response of taxpayers, who want to know how their money is being spent. It is a legitimate response of parents, who want also to know how well their children are being educated."

Paradoxically, the call for accountability is heard from two different and often incompatible entities within society. One is the conservative community. The other is the community of the disadvantaged (minority groups, in the main) and the liberal spokesmen who champion their cause.

Conservatives argue that if schools are going to cost more money, they ought to demonstrate that they are getting measurable results.

The minorities and their champions charge that the schools are not educating their children. Julius Hobson —a black leader of Washington, DC, director of the Washington Institute for Quality Education, and former member of the District of Columbia school board—puts the matter bluntly: "Education is the only industry in which the consumer—the child—is held responsible for the quality of the product. If an engineer worked for

my reaction. I stifled my instinct to crumple the

I strode over to my desk and looked at the out-

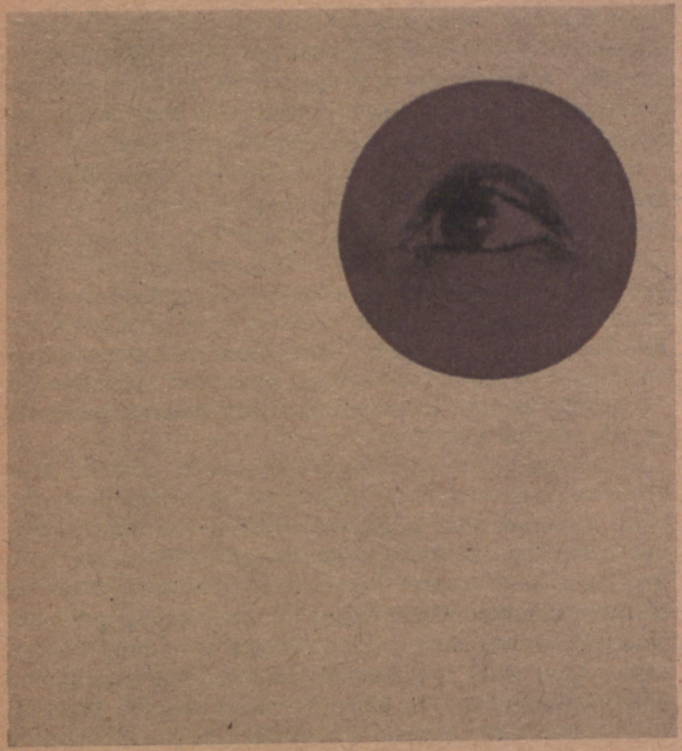
Ford, and a Ford car came off the assembly line and its wheels fell off, they'd get rid of that engineer. Well, if I put a seventh grade book in front of my 13-year-old daughter, and I say, 'Honey, read this for Daddy,' and she's in the seventh grade and can't read it, or is reading at the second grade level, then I feel someone is accountable."

There are, of course, angry political and ideological overtones in some of the talk about accountability. Nevertheless, thoughtful voices point out that the issue may have its origin not just in public hostility to the schools but in the fact that education is at some kind of turning point. Anna L. Hyer, director of the NEA's Educational Technology Division, believes that rising costs and ghetto disillusionment with the schools are only symptoms. "The basic problem," said Dr. Hyer in a speech before the Michigan Education Association, "is one of adjusting to the impact that a rapidly changing technological society is making on the educational system both in terms of *what* we teach and *how* we teach it."

Grant Venn, associate secretary of the American Association of School Administrators and formerly associate commissioner of the U.S. Office of Education, says that where schools were once "accountable" for "selecting out" students for the unskilled labor force, there is now little need for unskilled labor. "Suddenly," he says, "the situation is such that schools are expected to educate everyone to the point that he can be successful in a new kind of technological society."

Donald F. Wilson, president of the Association of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association, sees other explanations for the fact that accountability is presently front and center on the educational stage. According to him, the launching of Sputnik drew national attention to "the product emerging from the American public schools," and increased expenditure of federal funds on education prompted Congress to "question whether it is getting a big enough bang for its educational buck."

Dr. Hyer defines accountability as a concept that involves "agreeing upon objectives, deciding upon the input to achieve the objectives, and measuring the output to see the degree to which the objectives have been met." Governor Russell Peterson of Delaware, chairman of the Education Commission of the States, says accountability involves making what the student learns, rather than what the teacher teaches, the educational objective and thus the basis for measurement. Leon M. Lessinger, former associate commissioner for elementary



and secondary education of the U.S. Office of Education, cites as an example of accountability the writing of a program objective in terms as specific as this: "Given three days and the resources of the library, the student completing this program will be able to write a 300-to 500-word set of specifications for constructing a model airplane that a workshop student could follow and build to specifications." Bernard Asbell, a hard-liner on accountability and the public schools, gave this unvarnished definition of the term in IBM's customer magazine, *Think:* "Payment for service when it is *satisfactorily* delivered."

So, the name of the game is accountability: evaluation of education and the educator not on the basis of what is poured into the educational process but on what comes out at the other end. And, understandably, the teacher, who stands at the center of the process, feels threatened.

How accountable is the classroom teacher? Should he be called to task for what the student does or doesn't learn? Singly? Along with others in and out of the educational community? Or not at all?

To assess classroom teacher opinion on these questions, the Association of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association devoted its 1970 annual

I strode over to my desk and looked at the out-

national study conference to the issue of accountability in education. In attendance at the conference were some 55 classroom teachers from all parts of the United States—leading practitioners of their craft, widely respected in the areas from which they came. Sitting with them were 25 consultants from other organizations.

Conference participants declared emphatically that the individual classroom teacher is indeed accountable and wishes to be held accountable within certain clearly defined limits. What's more, the classroom teacher *has* been accountable. The Code of Ethics of the Education Profession, subscribed to by the 1.1 million members of the National Education Association (which includes the 950,000 members of ACT), is a document of accountability. So is any contract negotiated by a school board and a local teachers association. Through the negotiations process, teachers formally undertake to render specified services, under a stipulated set of conditions, in return for certain recompense. They put their professional expertise on the line, assuming shared responsibility with the school board and the administration in the decision making on curriculum and other matters central to the educational process.

But, conference participants said, no one can contend that the classroom teacher is alone accountable for the end product of the schools. He shares accountability with the taxpayers, who pay the bill; the parents, who during the first six years of their child's life largely shape what the teacher must deal with; Congress and state legislatures, which ante up much of the money; the school board, which makes school policy; and the administrators, who carry it out.

After two days and evenings of intense work, the conferees came up with rational and reasonable answers to several questions about teacher accountability.

The following is a summary of conferees' answers to the broad questions posed to them.

For what specific areas of education can and should classroom teachers be held accountable?

• Classroom teachers as individuals are accountable for—

1. Adequate academic preparation and continued professional growth.

2. Enhancement of the professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for competent classroom practice.

3. Knowledge of and concern for students.

4. Communications and relations with students, staff, community, and the education profession.

5. Involvement in educational and social concerns.
6. Active participation in community affairs.
7. Ethical conduct.
8. Membership in and support of the united teaching profession.

• Classroom teachers as a segment of the education profession are accountable for the development and implementation within the school system of policies (conditions of employment, conditions of teaching and learning, and curriculum) that will ensure:

1. Preparation of the student as a contributing member of society. This includes the development in each student of academic, vocational, physical, and social skills; a sense of worth; an appreciation of the background and ideas of others; and the ability to think and act in an ever-changing world.

2. Establishment of a climate of fair treatment and maximum learning opportunity for each student. This includes a curriculum that meets the needs of students; conditions conducive to a learning environment; definite learning objectives; fair and reasonable evaluation criteria for those areas of education that can be measured accurately; classroom management and organization that stimulates learning; and adequate and appropriate physical resources and educational tools.

• Classroom teachers as members of the organizations of the united teaching profession are accountable for the establishment of professional autonomy, whereby the profession determines, abides by, and enforces its own standards of preparation, certification, evaluation, and ethics.

To whom are classroom teachers accountable?

• Classroom teachers are accountable—

1. To themselves.
2. To the teaching profession.
3. To their peer professional group.
4. To their unified professional association.
5. To their students.
6. To the public as embodied in the parent; the public's representatives (i.e., school boards, legislatures—local, state, and national); the community; and the taxpayer.
7. To the school administration.
8. To college personnel (for elementary and secondary training of students who enter institutions of higher education).

Under what conditions is it reasonable to expect classroom teachers to be accountable?

• Classroom teachers are accountable for public education only in the degree that they share responsi-

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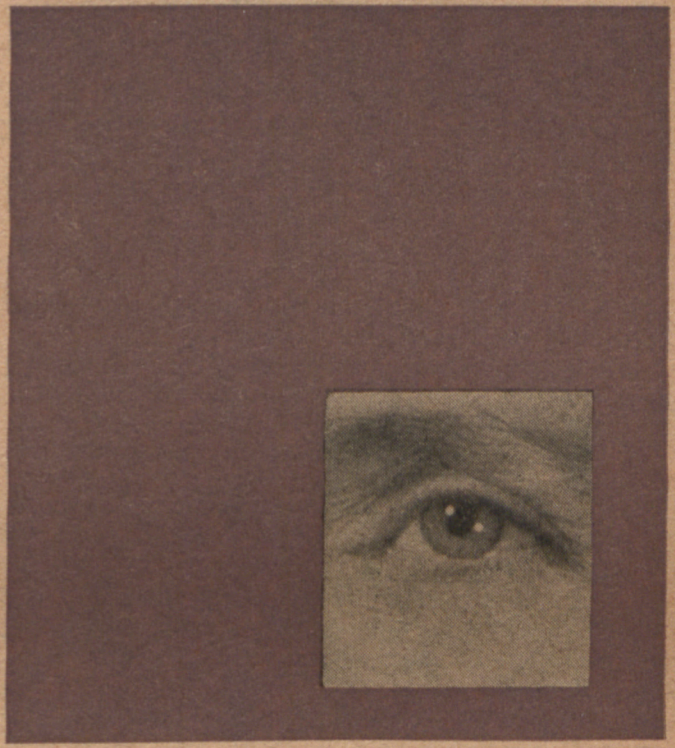
bility for education. Further, they can be held fully accountable *only when the following conditions exist.*

1. The public supports education in a measure commensurate with its expectations of education. Quality education requires funding schools adequately, paying teachers salaries commensurate with other professions, and allocating comparable resources to the education of every child.

2. Conditions of teacher service are jointly defined by the school board and the local teachers association. A comprehensive master contract negotiated by the school board and the local teachers association gives teachers the right to share in determining educational policies including school plant design; use of school facilities; staffing patterns; class organization; scheduling; development of instructional strategies; means of diagnosing, evaluating, and reporting student progress; and in-service education of teachers. Written personnel policies ensure for the teacher professional salaries, security of employment, a manageable task, and a working grievance procedure.

3. The school setting is conducive to teaching and learning. This means that—

a. The schools have realistic, clearly defined goals that are developed cooperatively by teachers, board,



administration, students, parents, and community.

b. There is adequate knowledge of the expected instructional outcomes and results.

c. There is appropriate evaluation of all instructional goals—academic, vocational, attitudinal, humanistic, and behavioral.

d. The educational process is highly valued and judged along with learning outcomes.

e. The school climate protects the rights of students and teachers.

f. Students participate in educational decision making, particularly relating to the curriculum.

g. Students and teachers are provided with wholesome peer level experiences that cross cultural, racial, and socioeconomic lines.

h. The teacher is assigned only to positions that he is prepared to teach.

i. The teacher has time to plan, prepare, and execute the teaching task and is free from extracurricular nonteaching duties.

j. The teacher has an appropriate class load.

k. The teacher has adequate and appropriate supportive personnel, facilities, space, resources, and teaching materials.

l. The teacher has the responsibility, time, and resources to select, evaluate, and purchase all materials necessary to implement the curriculum.

m. The teacher has freedom to teach without fear of reprisals.

n. The teacher has strong administrative backing on discipline.

o. The teacher has the right to determine evaluation procedures.

p. The testing program is relevant, impartial, and nondiscriminatory.

q. The teacher has the right to diagnose the needs of students and refer them to coordinate professional services (health, welfare, guidance, and psychological).

4. The teaching profession controls its own internal affairs. This means that—

a. The profession has the right to determine professional standards and has the responsibility to enforce these standards.

b. States have laws establishing professional standards commissions that include a majority of classroom teachers.

c. Teacher preparation institutions are accredited by evaluation teams representing all levels of the teaching profession, including an equitable number of classroom teachers.

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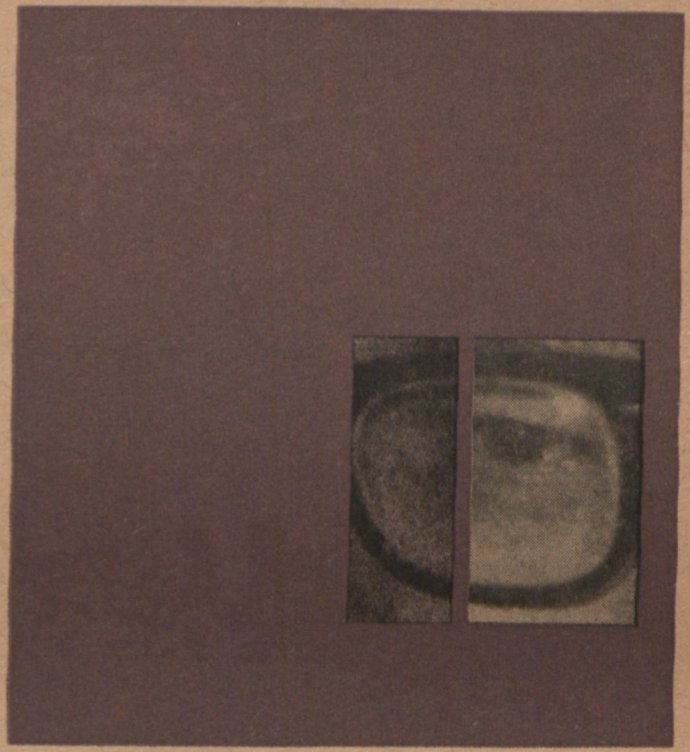
d. Teachers, through their professional associations, have an appropriate voice in all phases of teacher preparation (including field experiences); the teacher education curriculum; and selection, compensation, and load of cooperating teachers.

e. Teacher certification is based on satisfactory performance of the teaching task.

f. Preservice preparation includes three years of undergraduate study and two years in an intern situation.

Accountability has all the characteristics of a panacea, and one that is hard to fault, says D. D. Darland, associate executive secretary of NEA's Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. Hence he sees the American teacher as "a most likely candidate for scapegoat of the 1970's."

In fact, the scapegoating process seems well under way. It is understandable that teachers bridle a little when they see statements about performance contracting, such as one that appeared in a recent issue of a magazine for school board members. It said many members support the concept because of an "apparently widespread belief . . . that teachers have turned, at least to some degree, from commitment to children as their primary responsibility to a commitment to their



own occupational interest." Teachers now seem to be preoccupied with "winning the highest possible pay for the least possible effort," the magazine quoted one East Coast board member as saying.

Yet it is an exercise in futility to take only a defensive posture in the face of the spreading movement for accountability and performance criteria. All other considerations aside, there *is* justification for the cry from the ghetto. Children of the poor, and especially the minorities, *are* leaving school unable to read, write, or add. Who is responsible? It matters not in the least. What matters is that a democratic society cannot endure with the problem of widespread poverty unsolved—with a large portion of our population deprived, alienated, and hostile. The only route out of poverty is education.

Nobody in his right mind expects accountability to solve all problems. But if it is a tool that will help to educate the uneducated and close the gap between school and community, then it ought to be used.

"Accountability," says Don Davies, associate commissioner of education of the U.S. Office of Education, "is a participatory process by which schools and communities can make judgments as to the things schools can and should do, about the resources and conditions needed to do them, and then, finally, as to whether they have done them. The process operates best at the level of a single school and the community it serves rather than at a national or state level. To limit accountability to the accountability of the teacher misses the point. I reject the concept of the self-contained teacher in a self-contained classroom. That kind of self-contained accountability doesn't make any sense."

The NEA's Anna Hyer speculates that accountability may turn out to be the "same kind of fad that programed learning was. It started out as the teaching machine. The machine was forgotten, but as a process it may drastically alter our educational practices." Therefore, says Dr. Hyer, accountability should not be viewed as a concept that "can or should be fought but rather one that should be controlled and guided to acceptable ends."

John W. Gardner, former Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, although perhaps not talking about accountability, could have had something of the sort in mind when he said, "The final justification of all the lofty educational policy, all the organizational efforts, is that somewhere an individual child learns something that he might not have learned, or grows in understanding, or gains in skill or insight." □

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what can the individual teacher do about accountability?

DONALD F. WILSON, president, Association of Classroom Teachers, NEA.

□ **In November 1970, the Association of Classroom** Teachers of the National Education Association sponsored the Classroom Teachers National Study Conference on Accountability in Education, which brought together some 55 classroom teachers and 25 representatives of other organizations to consider accountability as it affects the classroom teacher.

During the final sessions of the Conference, participants responded to three questions regarding accountability in education. Listed below are the questions, together with the answers given.

What can and will I as an individual member of a local association do about accountability?

1. Report to my colleagues orally and in writing on the deliberations of the conference.

2. Launch and maintain an information campaign aimed at the profession and the public. This could involve—

- Being available to serve as a resource person to discuss accountability with teachers, association officers, the association membership, the administration, the school board, and civic and community groups.
- Making classroom teachers, the administration, the school board, and the public aware of what accountability means.
- Working toward the organization of a coalition of groups that will stimulate thought and action on questions relating to accountability.
- Urging members to read this feature on accountability.
- Distributing literature (such as the feature) to the PTA, school board, and teachers who are not members of the professional associations.

3. Encourage the sponsorship of workshops on accountability for teachers and/or all segments of education, including higher education, students, parents, and civic leaders. This might involve initiating a program similar to the Classroom Teachers National Study Conference on Accountability in Education and/or sponsoring a student-teacher seminar on accountability.

4. Work through existing committees of the local association (Teacher Education and Professional Standards, Public Relations, and Professional Rights and Responsibilities) or establish new committees to define accountability; establish behavioral objectives for which

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classroom teachers will be held accountable; share information with other local committees and develop a position on accountability.

5. Present a report on the Classroom Teachers National Study Conference on Accountability in Education to the curriculum committee of the school system and recommend (a) taking steps to change the curriculum so that, where applicable, all curriculum goals are stated in terms of behavioral objectives developed by the staff; (b) gathering and using more feedback on the expectations of students and the community.

6. Seek greater utilization of the negotiation process by—

- Securing a contract if none exists.
- Requesting the negotiation of a policy covering the area of accountability for classroom teachers, administrators, the board of education, the community, and students.
- Ensuring that any contract or agreement guarantees the involvement of the local association from the inception of any program which considers a performance contract or any other approach to accountability.

7. Seek to strengthen the local association by—

- Stressing the importance of unification.
- Guaranteeing involvement of classroom teachers.
- Encouraging a strong membership commitment to the needs of classroom teachers.

8. Support a professional practices act.

What would I like to influence my state association to do?

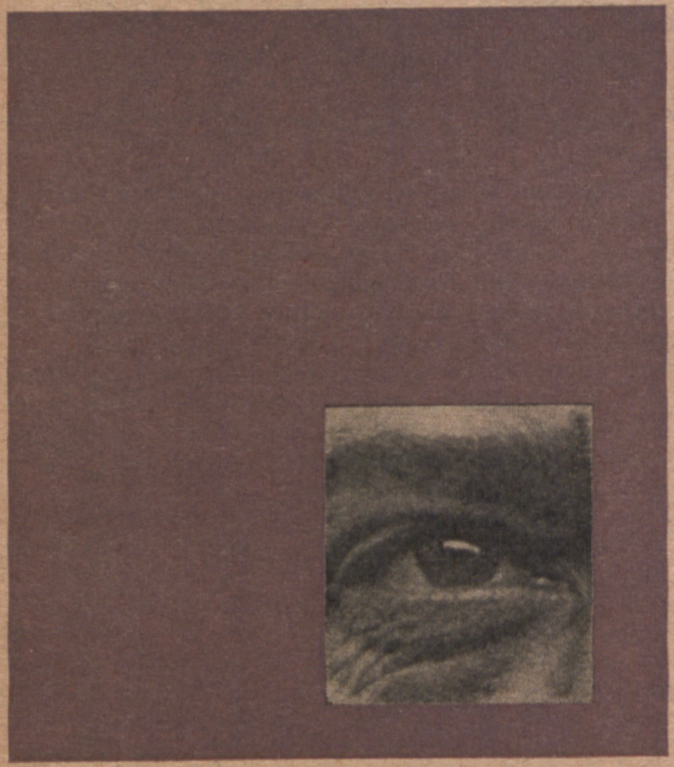
1. Sponsor workshops on accountability; plan study conferences to secure the reactions from teachers across the state on the issue of accountability; design conferences to formulate state policy; plan conferences on implications of accountability and invite civic leaders, legislators, school board members, and parents.

2. Inform its membership on the accountability issue through all existing channels; distribute materials on accountability to all teachers, both members and nonmembers; disseminate information regarding performance contracting and its impact on education.

3. Investigate the status of performance contracts in the state and disseminate the information obtained in the investigation.

4. Establish a policy on accountability; develop state guidelines on the application of the concepts of accountability; adopt a strong resolution on accountability and professional autonomy.

5. Initiate dialogue with performance contractors.



6. Conduct a massive public education program on the duties of teachers. The aim of such a program should be to demonstrate that teachers welcome the opportunity to be more accountable, but that without the concomitant authority they cannot assume full responsibility.

7. Establish liaison with universities as a means of becoming more involved in improving teacher education programs.

8. Press for professional autonomy by—

- Working with the state legislatures to improve vague or unjust statutory requirements of teachers.
- Working toward professional standards legislation and professional practices acts.
- Seeking passage of state legislation that makes negotiation legal and mandatory.
- Explaining the association's position on accountability to legislative bodies and government officials involved in educational decision making.
- Contacting legislators on teacher priorities.
- Putting maximum effort behind a drive to develop a model of a master contract. The negotiation process should cover economic matters, curriculum, and school policy in order to achieve conditions under which accountability is feasible.

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9. Publicize effective local programs and take other steps to ensure that local and state programs mutually reinforce each other.

10. Boycott all plans and programs that include performance contracting, ability grouping, and tests of all types in which classroom teachers have not been meaningfully involved in all stages of development. Promote knowledge of NEA's policy on performance contracting.

11. Work toward unified membership in the professional associations.

12. Promote attendance at NEA's Grass Roots Involvement Program (GRIP) seminars.

What would I like to influence my national association to do?

1. Adopt resolution(s) dealing with accountability.

2. Launch a major program with an adequate budget allocation to conduct research and disseminate information on accountability. Such a program would involve—

- Conducting an in-depth study and releasing the results to the public.
- Carrying on research that will assist teachers in the objective evaluation of the performance for which they are held accountable.
- Developing broad national guidelines for standards of accountability for use at state and local levels.
- Mounting a nationwide information program to the public, educators, and legislators. The program would (a) explore the total problem of accountability in the popular press, particularly magazines; (b) report to local associations on actions taken by other locals; (c) disseminate information to every NEA member through NEA publications; (d) make available to state journals the accountability feature in TODAY'S EDUCATION.
- Providing help and counsel for state and local associations on performance contractors.
- Instituting sanctions and censure against districts adopting performance contracting without participation and approval of the teacher association.

3. Expand the GRIP seminars to include programs on accountability.

4. Provide stronger legislative support for: (a) increased federal funding for schools; (b) national professional negotiation; (c) national legislation on issues relating to professional autonomy.

5. Assist colleges in developing programs to prepare teachers to meet the demands of today's society.

6. Request ACT to do a follow-up study of activities that result from this conference. □

This feature has been developed cooperatively by the Association of Classroom Teachers (ACT) of the National Education Association and TODAY'S EDUCATION. Reprints are available in packages of 30 for $2. Order by Stock No. 111-03974. All orders must be prepaid except for those on your official purchase order forms. (Shipping and handling charges will be added to billed purchase orders.) Make checks payable to the National Education Association. Address communications to NEA Publications-Sales Section, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

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Accountability and the Reverend Dogood

JOHN E. MOTZKUS, *social studies teacher, Savanna High School, Anaheim, California, president-elect of the Anaheim Secondary Teachers Association.*

□ **With all the pressure on teachers for scientific** management these days, I really envied the Reverend Dogood, our local divine.

"You should be glad that you're not in public education," I told him the other day. "The key word now is 'accountability.' We're going to start to carefully measure output in terms of pupil performance and judge teachers' competence on this final product."

"So what else is new?" he shot back. "We've had accountability in our church now for over a year. Our board and president got tired of the ministers' drawing their pay without proof that they were producing. They said that on the 'outside' people get fired if they don't produce, and that's the way it's going to be in religion."

"Is that right?" I asked in surprise. "But how in the world do they decide if you are earning your money? Evaluate your sermons? Check that you make your home and hospital visits?"

"Of course not! That would be trying to measure the *process* instead of the output. We have developed a system called the Religious Program Budgeting System (RPBS for short). With RPBS, we can spell out our objectives in performance criteria so clearly that even a nonbeliever can understand. Then the Budgeting System shows exactly how much money we spend on each objective. If we fail to meet a particular objective, then funds for that objective are reduced. Simple!"

"Well, I know something about performance objectives," I said. "But how do you write them for religion?"

"Easy," he said. He walked over to his bookcase and pulled out a thick, loose-leaf binder titled *Religious Goals and Objectives.* "How about this one?" he said, opening the book at random: "Ninety percent of the congregation will be able to write or recite the Ten Commandments with less than 10 percent error in a four-minute period of time."

"That should be an easy one to check," I ventured. "But it requires only rote memory. Lay one on me that involves a higher level of thinking: application, analysis, evaluation, or something."

"I think that most of our cognitive objectives are of the memory kind," he replied rather shamefacedly. "You see, the lay board wrote the goals but allowed the ministers to write the performance objectives. Everybody likes to score high on evaluations."

"Oh, don't feel bad," I reassured him. "The intellect isn't the most important thing in religion anyway, is it? Aren't people's attitudes the most important? How they really feel inside?"

"Yes, of course," he said, brightening considerably. "But again, you can't go just on the basis of how they feel inside. That's not *measurable.* I'll read you an attitudinal objective," he said, flipping to another section of the book. " 'The females of the congregation will appreciate the beauty and truth of the Seventh Commandment to the extent that the illegitimacy rate will decrease 10 percent per year for the next 10 years.' " He looked up, beaming proudly.

"Well," I observed, "it sounds like you're getting it down to a gnat's eyebrow! You should be able to identify the ministers who are really working at it and those who are in it for the easy money."

"You bet! We're way ahead by giving some of these guys their walking papers and calling in private industry. You know, there are companies that will guarantee the objectives in contract form. If they don't perform, they don't get their money. Of course, there is the danger of irregularities like the company that rewarded each convert with a tape recorder and Polaroid camera."

"Well, Reverend Dogood," I replied, "I wasn't sure the whole accountability thing was suited for education. But if you're sure it works for religion. . . ."

"I'm convinced of it," he cut in. "Until I got involved in the accountability approach, I was stagnating—preparing sermons on the gospels, individual spiritual guidance, all that traditional stuff. Now my whole operation has changed. I don't think of myself much as a pastor now but more as a consultant in religious management—a sort of spiritual systems analyst." □

THE FAT CHILD

CHARLOTTE M. YOUNG, *professor of medical nutrition, Graduate School of Nutrition, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.*

□ **Obesity is probably the number-one nutrition problem** of children in our land of plenty—in spite of the fact that the current focus, socially and politically, is on the lesser numbers of underfed children. The problem is of legitimate concern to educators, since retrospective studies show that a goodly portion of fat adults have been so since childhood.

Couple this fact with increasing evidence that the only real answer to the obesity problem is prevention, and one thinks how nice it would be if there were pat suggestions for teachers of what they can do to help the obese or potentially obese child! Unfortunately, however, there are no pat answers. There are still so many unsolved problems related to obesity that it would be less than honest to imply otherwise. Perhaps one can best serve the educator by so informing him and by helping him to an intelligent understanding of the problem.

Let us be clear at the start that our concern is with the fat or obese child, not the one who is overweight according to some table. Though most *excessively* overweight children are too fat, not all overweights are, and, indeed, some average-weight children are too fat. Many factors contribute to weight: bone structure, muscle mass, and relative length of trunk and legs, as well as fat. A better index of obesity is the simple "pinch" test in which a fold of skin and subcutaneous fat is lifted free of underlying soft tissue and bone and held between the thumb and forefinger. If the fold is much greater than one inch, the child is doubtless too fat; if markedly less than one-half inch, he is too thin. Such a test with a simple scientific instrument (the skinfold caliper), using a skinfold on the back of the upper arm, is proposed as a determinant of obesity in children. We need to avoid falsely identifying as obese the heavy-muscled, big-boned, long-trunked child.

We should use the term, "the obesities," instead of "obesity" because we are not dealing with a single disease but rather with a symptom of some underlying energy imbalance which may have many causes: genetic, metabolic, psychological, sociological, cultural, or even economic. The obesities, particularly in children, are complex problems to which there are no simple answers. Not all cases have the same causes and thus they can't be treated in the same way. The real problem for the physician is to find the basic cause in each case and to treat it accordingly.

Undoubtedly, some cases are due to genetic factors or metabolic defects; how important either of these may be is still uncertain. A variety of evidence leaves little doubt that genetics are a factor in some cases of obesity.

To many people who work with obese children, there is little question but that psychological factors appear to be important in a significant number of cases. These emotional responses affect both the intake of food and drink and the level of physical and social activity. Thus they influence both energy intake and output in undesirable directions. Are psychological factors cause or effect? In some cases, the presence of obesity leads to psychological complications and social pressures similar to those experienced by members of minority groups.

Many studies point to the role of physical inactivity in producing obesity. Fat individuals spend a great deal less time than the nonfat in physical activity, and they are much less active in the time that they devote to presumed physical activity. In fact, physical inactivity may be a more significant factor than abnormally large food intake.

Some mothers overfeed their babies because they live in cultures where obesity has status value and the big, fat babies are the prized ones. Furthermore, certain aspects of food patterns retained by some immigrants, when combined with certain aspects of U.S. food patterns, may lead to excessive caloric intakes. In an area sampling in New York City, obesity was found to be seven times more frequent among women reared in the lowest socioeconomic category than among those reared in the highest, thus pointing to the effect of socioeconomic factors.

Recent rat studies indicate that the total number of fat cells in the body is determined early in life; once formed, the cells can change in size but not in number. Fat children, therefore, would probably have more and larger fat cells than ordinary children. Presumably, once excess fat cells are formed, they cannot be reduced in number though they may be reduced in size with caloric restriction. Practical interpretations

of these studies await the future, but they may indicate the importance of avoiding excessive caloric intake from the earliest stages of life.

Unfortunately, few studies give us any idea of the relative importance of the various factors that contribute to obesity. If we had the answer to this question, we would be in a better position to know how to plan programs for its prevention.

One fact is certain: The treatment of obesity has been strikingly unsuccessful. The few well-documented, long-term studies of weight reduction show that only a small proportion reduce successfully and many of those who are successful sooner or later regain the weight lost. Weight loss may also lead to undesirable results. Thus the only real answer must be *prevention* of obesity.

Until we know more about obesity, we can only speculate on the best preventive measures. Let us consider the role of educators and schools. Teachers must be made aware of the complex nature of the obesities and the many possible causative factors. They also need to be reminded that obesity is not a moral issue and that if cultural condemnation could be eliminated, many defensive obese people might be more easily helped.

Teachers, in their basic education, should receive at least some nutrition education and information on the determinants of food habits and activity patterns, as well as the normal emotional and physical development of children. They should be in a position to help parents, particularly mothers, to understand how relationships between the parent and child and others in his environment affect the child's response to food. The feeding process should not be an emotional football. The mother's role is to provide an adequate diet, well-prepared and served under pleasant circumstances, and then to be quiet and let the child eat as his needs dictate.

Schools can make a unique contribution in preventing obesity by offering adequate nutrition education as an integral part of the curriculum, particularly at primary and early secondary school level. Included in nutrition education should be some indication of how one judges a desirable state of body fatness, the relative energy values of various types of food and activities, the nutritive contributions of foods associated with their relative energy values, the role of exercise in energy balance and in physical fitness, and the changes in energy needs throughout life. The information should be taught at each level in terms understandable to the child, using motivations meaningful to the student at that level. Well-thought-out curriculums are available to the interested teacher.*

In our society a most important educational emphasis for the prevention of obesity would be giving a positive value to physical fitness—through greater physical activity throughout life. We need thoroughgoing changes in this respect from earliest childhood on, because the greatest concentration has been on competitive and team sports. Because these become mere spectator sports in just a few years, we need an early concentration on individual participation in activities which can last a lifetime, such as walking, hiking, swimming, skating, golfing, bicycling, and gardening. Emphasis on activities like these takes community planning as well so that there is a safe place to walk and bicycle.

Schools can help too in changing eating patterns so as to be in tune with modern times, both through their school lunch program and the provision of snacks that are low in calories and high in nutrition.

What can be said about the teacher's role in helping the already obese child? Most authorities agree obesity in children is difficult and frustrating to manage. Perhaps the best advice to teachers is to leave the problem to the experts. Not every child is ready to face weight reduction. Personality characteristics, such as immaturity, passivity, an overdependent relationship on an overprotective mother, unhappiness, insecurity, introversion, and difficulty in showing one's feelings and relating to others, militate against it.

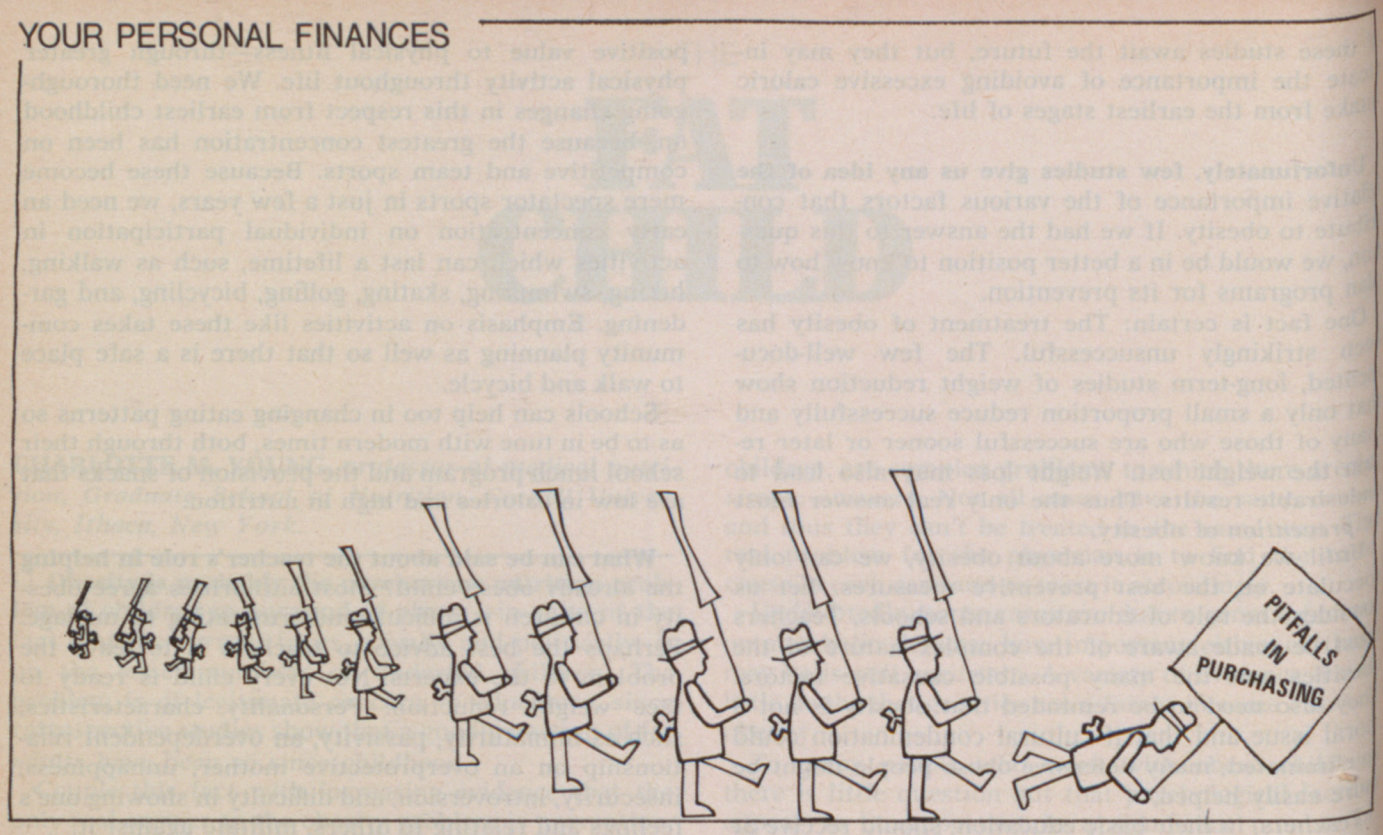
For successful weight reduction, the child must have strong motivation and a certain degree of maturity with a relatively high tolerance to frustration. If these factors are present, diet counseling (adjusted to the adolescent's particular preferences and with emphasis on moderation rather than abstinence), planned exercise, and supportive therapy will help. It is also important to replace a major satisfaction like eating with something equally satisfying and rewarding.

Obesity is likely to occur during three periods in childhood: late infancy, early school age, and puberty. The first two frequently don't respond to the usual methods of treatment, and continued stress on losing is not only unsuccessful most of the time but may be a detriment to social adjustment as well.

Perhaps teachers can help most by taking a personal interest in the child, not in his obesity; listening to his feelings and problems; sharing his confidences; accepting him as he is; giving him support in his efforts to be independent; and helping him to find personal recognition and success in assuming responsibilities and duties.

Sometimes group activities engaged in with the help of a teacher or counselor are helpful to obese youngsters by providing an accepting climate in which they may socialize and concentrate on self-improvement rather than weight loss. The youngster often appreciates help with selection of clothing, involvement in outside interests, and development of social graces as means of increasing his self-respect and feelings of adequacy. Teachers are often in a better position to help than parents, but since even the experts don't know all the answers to the obesity problem, teachers cannot and should not try to be therapists. □

*For example, the series developed by the New York State College of Human Ecology at Cornell University, separate volumes of which cover grades K-3, 4-6, 7-9, 10-12. Free single copies are available from the Special Unit on Health and Drug Education, New York State Department of Education, Albany 12224.



DONALD E. DOHERTY, *director, Greater Hartford (Connecticut) Better Business Bureau.*

☐ **Today's marketplace is quite complex and frequently impersonal.** You must be an articulate shopper if you wish to avoid the pitfalls that await the compulsive, thoughtless, and/or uninformed buyer.

You need to ask questions and obtain complete answers, and, when in doubt about any aspect of a transaction, get the information you are seeking before you finalize the agreement. Since more problems arise from the contract than from any other phase of a transaction, let us discuss this first.

Is a contract binding?

Yes, a contract signed by you cannot be changed or cancelled by you—unless the other party agrees.

How can you play safe when you have to sign a contract?

Before signing, be sure you understand everything written in it. If you don't, get someone to help you.

Don't rely on a salesperson's verbal statement of the features or performance of a product or a service. Insist on having such statements written into the contract. Some contracts include the sentence, "Only terms written into this contract are valid." This statement automatically excludes the fulfillment of all spoken promises that the salesperson may have made.

Never sign a contract if it has blank spaces that could be filled in later. If a contract contains items that do not pertain to your transaction, cross them out.

Always get a copy of your contract and keep it.

Is your signature on a contract really important?

It certainly is. It is your seal of approval of everything written above it; it binds you to each written statement in the contract.

Can a contract ever be cancelled?

If fraud or misrepresentation is proven, a contract can be voided. This usually involves legal action. However, there are state agencies that will act in your behalf. Also, a Better Business Bureau may act as your negotiator and endeavor to obtain a favorable settlement of your problem.

Under the federal Truth-in-Lending Law, the buyer has the right of recision (cancellation) of a contract if the purchase might result in a lien, mortgage, or other legal security interest on his home. Under these circumstances, the buyer may cancel the contract without penalty or obligation by notifying the seller by mail or telegram within three business days after the date of purchase.

Some states have laws governing sales made in the home of the buyer. These laws usually allow a three-day recision period. It is always wise to learn *before* you make a major purchase whether your purchase is covered by the right of recision.

What rights do you have when you purchase something in a store?

You have the right to expect that the item will properly serve the purpose for which you bought it; that it is not defective or damaged; that, in the case of an appliance, it will operate efficiently and not be subject to constant repair; that, where appropriate, you will get the full weight of an item as it is advertised; that the item will be delivered on schedule; that you will be properly billed; and that all conditions stated in your purchase agreement, including the guarantee, will be fully adhered to.

Are all guarantees alike?

Definitely not. As with a contract, you should read and understand a guarantee thoroughly.

You should look for four basic items: (a) the nature and extent of the guarantee, (b) any material conditions or limitations imposed by the guarantor,(c) the manner in which the guarantor will perform, and (d) the identity of the guarantor.

Can you automatically cancel a purchase and get a refund if you change your mind about a purchase?

No. You consummate the agreement when you sign your name, make a deposit, accept merchandise, agree to a payment plan, or charge a purchase. The transaction is final—unless the seller has a privilege policy that permits you to cancel, get a refund, make an exchange, or get equal credit.

Under what circumstances can a sale be cancelled?

No legal procedure or right can alter a sale if it is a bona fide transaction. The seller has equal responsibility; he cannot change any feature of the sale—unless the buyer agrees to the alteration, too.

Are there any rules you should follow when making a purchase in a store?

Find out the policy of various stores and buy where the policy fits your expectations and your pocketbook. Remember that a store does not have to display placards declaring its policy. The general policy is: "A sale is final, unless the terms of the sale or the policy of the seller are otherwise."

If you have to sign anything, know what you are agreeing to. Also keep all sales slips, delivery slips, and payment and credit receipts.

What about telephone sales?

Many reputable business firms and religious and charitable organizations use an honest, straightforward approach when they sell by telephone. Unfortunately, less reputable organizations also use the telephone for sales purposes.

How can you recognize the disreputable seller on the phone?

He will usually behave in one or more of the following ways: He will (a) fail to identify himself; (b) claim to be conducting a survey and then try to arrange a salesman's interview; (c) say he is not selling anything but would like to interview you for advertising purposes; (d) reel off prices, costs, offers, and questions so fast that you are confused; (e) describe a "special offer" that sounds too good to be true; (f) inform you that you have been chosen to receive a "free" gift; or (g) be rude or persistent.

How can you be sure your donations go to your chosen charity and don't end up in someone else's pocket?

The best method is to give your personal check directly to the charity or, if possible, tell your employer that you want a portion of your salary deducted for a charitable organization, such as the United Fund.

Where can you go for information to find out whether a charitable appeal is reputable?

Most states and cities have government agencies that require all organizations that solicit funds from the public to register and to file financial reports. Your local Better Business Bureau or Chamber of Commerce can also give you a report on such organizations and appeals.

How can you avoid phony charity appeals?

Follow these principles:

- Do not deal with a solicitor until you have checked out the charity.
- Do not contribute just because you think you recognize the organization.
- Do not contribute money or buy merchandise or advertising in response to telephone solicitation.
- Do not assume that a charity is reputable simply on the basis of a list of subscribers or credentials.
- Do not be afraid to say "No."

What about tickets and merchandise that are sold over the phone for the benefit of some charity?

Whenever tickets are sold by public solicitation with the objective of raising money, their sale is a promotion and not a charitable appeal. Only a very small percentage of the price of the ticket goes to charity.

Merchandise should always be purchased on its own merits and not on the basis of some sympathetic appeal. You should use the same reasoning when purchasing merchandise from a charitable organization as you do when purchasing it from any other seller. Ask yourself these three questions: Can I use the product? Is the seller reliable? Is the price right?

Can you get "free" land and magazines?

Many sales gimmicks are being used to promote land sales, including offers of "free" cocktail parties, dinners, and inspection trips. Before you become financially involved in such a deal, check out the promoters with your state real estate commissioner, HUD's Office of Interstate Land Sales Registration, your Better Business Bureau, or your Chamber of Commerce.

There are no "free" magazines, and none are available for the price of postage only. Magazines should be sold and purchased on their merits, not on the basis of a sympathetic appeal or the modern version of the old I'm-working-my-way-through-college pitch.

If you are approached by a door-to-door magazine salesperson, get his identification and find out whether he is bonded and registered at your local police department. Never give him cash or a check made out to him.

What procedure should you follow when you consider doing business with an itinerant repairman, tailor, or auctioneer?

Keep in mind that he will be here today and gone tomorrow. Consequently, dealing with him can be an unhappy experience, since if anything goes wrong, he will have vanished or gone beyond local jurisdiction.

It is always best to deal with a local, established firm. If you do not know one, ask your friends and neighbors for the names of some reliable firms or get a reliability report from your Better Business Bureau or Chamber of Commerce.

What is a good overall rule to follow?

If you are not absolutely sure of the reliability of the seller or serviceman, remember that it is better to doubt and question *before* you agree to buy a product or a service than to grieve after you have made the purchase. □

electronic

ANNE D. MODUGNO, *teacher of electronic music, music theory, harmony, counterpoint, and composition, Greenwich (Connecticut) High School.*

□ **Are music programs in the elementary schools offering students exciting and challenging creative experiences?** Children at this level *can* be motivated to create and develop in their own way. Like an artist with a blank canvas, they should have a blank tape and use their creative potential to fill it.

In an art class, the child develops a personal understanding of shape, line, color, and texture as he begins to create. He must decide which colors to use and how to change colors without losing certain effects. He experiences the fun of finding another world and then finding himself in the middle of it.

Elementary school children can also find another world in music by enjoying the experience of transforming raw materials into finished musical compositions. They should be given the chance to use a wide variety of sound materials, manipulating and structuring them so they assume new meanings. In doing so, children develop an understanding of shape (musical form), line and color (timbre), and texture. They decide what sounds to use, how to change sounds, and how to relate sounds so they become meaningful.

Electronic music, with its multitude of modifications and diverse sounds, is a contemporary idiom that can foster such creative activity. The individual is not intimidated by the traditional problems of having to read and understand musical notation. Electronic music has no quarter notes, G clefs, and key signatures. Yet it is an art that demands imagination, develops the desire and ability to explore and investigate new ideas, and challenges the student to use newfound knowledge in a new venture. The pupil learns to think, to wonder, to be wrong, to be right. Flexibility and freedom are basic concepts; nobody dictates but the creator himself.

At the elementary school level, pupils are able to use the tape recorder in a creative way. By means of two stereo tape recorders, pupils can record a limitless number of natural or "concrete" sounds. Once they have explored all the tape recorder's capabilities, they can manipulate and modify recorded sounds into meaningful musical sequences. Teachers should encourage them to experiment with the sounds they find appealing and interesting and guide them in shaping these sounds into a conceptually acceptable composition.

The ingredients for a good melodic and/or rhythmic line are the same for the tape recorder as for wind, string, or percussion instruments. An interesting line has tensions, releases, repetitions, contrasts, and sequences. Sounds must be shaped by the composer just as a sculptor shapes clay. The tape recorder becomes the composer's tool. With it he can get many shapes in pitch, loudness, and tone color.

Practical tape work is the core of the electronic music program. The pupil needs to record a variety of sounds: vocal, instrumental, oral (such as snapping the tongue against the palate), and percussive (such as striking different materials or tapping the microphone). Once the sounds are recorded, pupils can manipulate them with no more equipment than two tape recorders.

Speed change effects many variations of recorded sounds. If a sound is recorded at 7½ ips (inches per second) and played back at 3¾ ips, the tape will move at half the speed, and sounds will be an octave lower. Pitch, duration, and timbre change when the original sound is played at a different speed. With the use of two tape recorders, the original sound may be recorded to sound several octaves higher or lower. Let the pupils try out the following:

- Play the original sound at a slower speed than that used for recording it. Record the slower sound on a second tape recorder—at a faster speed. Play this copy at the slower speed and once again record at the faster speed. This process will lower the original sound several octaves. If the procedure is reversed, the sounds will be heard several octaves higher.
- Experiment with dynamic levels through volume control. Manipulate the volume controls to produce changes in dynamic levels. Record on one recorder while changing levels on another and listen to the playback.

Copies of *Electronic Music*, the November 1968 issue of the *Music Educators Journal*, are still available at $2.00 each (no quantity discounts) from NEA Publications-Sales Section, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036, Stock No. 325-09918.

creativity

IN THE ELEMENTARY CLASSROOM

• Move the reels manually while they are on the tape recorder. Put the control knob in forward position and take the tape away from the capstan. Manipulate the tape by hand and listen to the new sounds as the tape moves at different speeds (see Figure 1).

• Play a recorded tape backwards. This can be done by recording on a stereo and playing back on a monaural recorder.

An important part of electronic music is the use of tape loops. A tape loop may be made from a short section of recorder tape by splicing the end to the beginning. The sound on the loop is repeated over and over.

On a stereo tape recorder, record a sound on channel I and another sound on channel II. Then record both these sounds onto a single channel of another recorder. This leaves opportunity to add more material on the other channel.

By avoiding the erase head, it's possible to create sound on sound on one channel. Several layers of sound may be recorded this way. Figure 2 shows one way to avoid the erase head.

Splicing and editing have extensive potential. Attacks made by percussion instruments may be cut out. Sequences of sound may be interchanged. Part of a musical sequence may be spliced out.

All these techniques can be further modified in conjunction with electronic music equipment. The most common electronic instruments can be used—the electronic organ and the electric guitar, piano, and Autoharp. By means of a simple adapter, all of these can be plugged directly into most tape recorders.

An inexpensive electronic music lab is now on the market. It has a complete basic set of eight electronic instruments that are small enough for children to hold in their hands. The instruments may be played individually, in groups, or all at once.

Listening to numerous recordings helps introduce the young student to electronic music sounds. The following recordings offer a variety of source sounds:

"Dripsody" by LeCaine. Folkways. FM3436/FMS33436.

"Bowery Bum" by Mimaroglu. Turnabout. TV 34004S.

"Piece for Tape Recorder" by Ussachevsky. CRI. 112.

"Evolutions—Ballet Suite" by Badings. Epic. BC 1118.

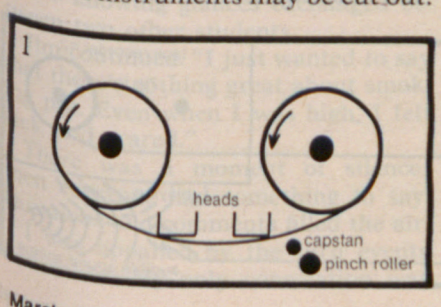
"Switched-On Bach" by Carlos. Columbia. MS 7194.

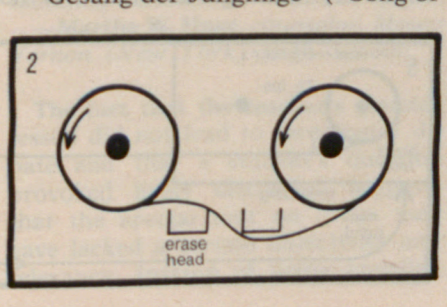
"Gesang der Jünglinge" ("Song of the Children") by Stockhausen. Deutsche Grammophon. 138811.

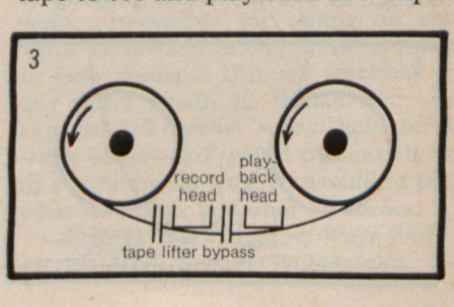
Electronic music encourages students to be creative and involves them in "thinking sound." Pupils are challenged as they face the task that all composers must deal with—that of manipulating sound in a meaningful way. For starters, they can conduct the experiments described below, all of which can be done with one or two tape recorders.

Note: In the diagrams (Figures 1-5) that follow, only those parts of the tape recorder that are relevant to the discussion are shown. Also, all the experiments—except the one illustrated in Figure 3—can be performed on older model tape recorders that have two heads (one for erasing and one for both recording and playing back). A more recent model, with separate heads for recording and playing back, must be used for the Figure 3 experiment.

• Fast record, slow playback. (a) Set recorder speed at 7½ ips. (b) Gently wind several feet of tape onto take-up reel. (c) Set tape counter at 000. (d) Plug in microphone and record series of sounds. (e) Rewind tape to 000. (f) Play back tape at 7½ ips. (g) Rewind tape to 000 and play back at 3¾ ips.







Ask: What differences do you hear?

• Slow record, fast playback. (a) Set recorder speed at 3¾ ips and repeat steps b, c, d, and e as listed on page 63. (b) Play back tape at 3¾ips. (c) Rewind tape to 000 and play back at 7½ ips. Ask: What differences do you hear?

• Recording fast rewind and fast forward playback. (See Figure 3.) (a) Set recorder at 7½ ips. (b) Gently wind several feet of tape onto take-up reel. (c) Set tape counter at 000. (d) Plug in microphone and record low notes on piano, guitar, or Autoharp at extremely slow speed for two minutes. Do *not* rewind. (e) Place tape behind tape lifter. (Tape lifters, which are used in comparatively inexpensive machines, eliminate signal playback during fast forward or fast rewind.) (f) Rewind and listen to changes while tape rewinds. (g) Play fast forward with tape still behind tape lifter. (When recording be sure signal [sound] is recording at very high level.)

• Octave change, using two tape recorders. (This process not only changes the pitches but doubles the length of the recorded sound in each step.) (a) Set recorder at 7½ ips. (b) Gently wind several feet of tape onto take-up reel. (c) Set tape counter at 000. (d) Plug in microphone and record series of percussive sounds. (e) Rewind tape to 000. (f) Play back at 3¾ ips. (g) Record percussive sounds on second recorder at 7½ ips while playing recorder #1 at 3¾ ips. (h) Play copy on recorder #2 at 3¾ ips and record on #1 at 7½ ips. (i) Continue process at least two more times; listen to final result. (If procedure is reversed, sounds will be heard several octaves higher.)

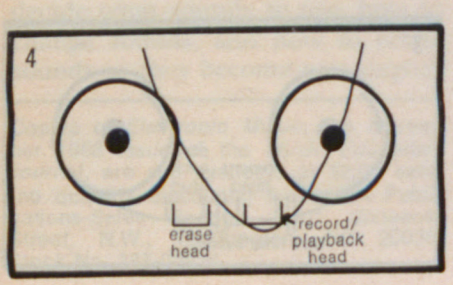
• Hand manipulation of reels. (See Figure 1.) (a) Thread recorded tape on recorder. (b) Take tape away from capstan. (c) Put control knob in forward position. (d) Manipulate reels by hand.

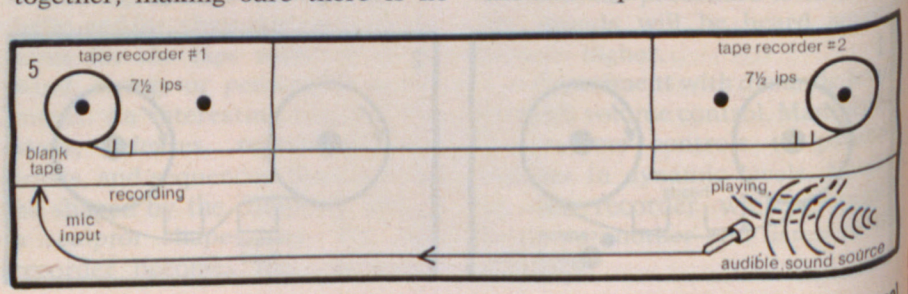
• Hand manipulation of reels. (See Figure 4.) (a) Thread tape in front of playback head alone. (b) Hand-manipulate tape, pulling it sideways across head. (c) Listen to signal as it is pulled slowly and ask: What pitch variables are there?

• Experiment with tape loop, using these materials: splicing bar, splicing tape, recording tape, razor blade, wax crayon.

(a) Locate desired sound on tape and mark beginning and end of sound with wax crayon. (b) Gently pull marked section of tape forward and place it on splicing bar. (c) Using wax crayon, mark with an arrow the direction of the sound. (d) Place mark which indicates beginning of sound on diagonal line of splicing bar. (e) Cut tape on diagonal with razor blade. (f) Do the same with the mark which indicates end of sound. (If abrupt sound is desired, use vertical splice.) (g) With shiny side facing up, carefully place ends of tape together, making sure there is no gap. (h) Cut a piece of splicing tape about ¾ of an inch in length. (i) Place splicing tape across ends of recording tape. (j) Gently remove loop from splicing bar. (k) Place loop on tape recorder and listen to repeated sound. (A successful tape loop will not have audible click at point of splice.) (l) Experiment with speed change. (m) Place loop, with dull side out, on tape recorder. (The sound is being played backwards.) (n) Put a band of paper with description of sound and direction on the loop.

• Experiment with simple echo reverberation (delayed feedback), using two tape recorders. (See Figure 5.) (a) Place blank tape on one tape recorder. (b) Gently wind several feet of tape onto take-up reel. (c) Place take-up reel on second recorder with tape passing in front of heads on both recorders. (d) Set tape counter at 000. (e) Set same speed on both recorders. (f) Plug microphone into first recorder with record buttons down. (g) Recorder #2 should be in play position. (h) If recorders are not synchronized (tape lags), move tape away from capstan on recorder #1. Note: The volume controls of both machines, plus the distance the microphone is held from the speaker of #2, all determine the volume and quality of the echo. A large tape loop may be used if you do not care to save the finished product. The distance between the recorders determines the time lapse of the echo. □





CLASSROOM INCIDENT

This is another in a JOURNAL *series presenting the handling of a troublesome classroom incident by a teacher and analyses by teachers or other consultants whose training and experience may enable them to contribute illuminating insights. This month we also present the reaction of a student.*

After my eleventh grade class completed a special unit on drugs, we set the stage for a debate on the subject. As an enthusiastic, second-year teacher, I had prepared my lesson plans on this unit with great care. I was sure the debate would show that my students had absorbed information and formed strong opinions against drug usage.

What a disappointment! From the start, the debate was dull, uninformative. My attempt to start a new discussion was interrupted by Mary's question: "So what's so bad about smoking pot?"

Silence reigned as the class waited for my answer. What could I say? Our discussions had dealt with the legal penalties for convicted marijuana users and the danger of psychological dependency on the drug. But the class wanted more. Somehow I gathered enough composure to reply: "We've already discussed the scientific implications of smoking marijuana, but evidently that's not enough. I don't know the answer to Mary's question. I do know that I wouldn't gamble *my* health by smoking marijuana."

My words hung in the air. Had I broken the rules of good pedagogy by "preaching" like this? Then I saw four or five hands waving for attention. I nodded at Jim.

"I probably shouldn't say this," he began, "but I tried smoking pot last year." A muffled voice from the back of the room admitted, "I did, too." I was shocked, all the more so because I saw knowing glances exchanged between two other students.

Jim continued. "I just wanted to say that there's nothing great about smoking pot. Even when I was high, I felt sick and scared."

There was a moment of silence; then everyone had something to say. Questions and comments filled the air.

I was appalled by the turn events had taken. My only consolation was that Jim hadn't said he *enjoyed* smoking pot. Feeling rather panicky, I looked at the clock and saw with relief that there was just enough time to discuss the next day's assignment. This I promptly did, and never reopened the discussion at a later date.

What was my responsibility in the events I have described? Did I have a legal or moral obligation to tell the principal that some of my students had smoked pot? Should parents be notified? And I was plagued with this question: Is it right for a teacher to tackle a subject as touchy as drugs? What would an experienced teacher say in answer to these questions?

Consultants' Reactions

This incident shows some marks of a good teacher but one wishes to know more: Did the student say he had experimented with drugs on or off the school grounds? Was the wording of the debate topic loaded? Why was this teacher surprised to find experimentation with marijuana when national surveys show its widespread usage?

The teacher should clear his goals. He wished to be objective, but his students were expected to form strong opinions against drug usage; he wished discussion, but he stifled it.

Few teachers can hide their feelings, and it's better to bring one's commitments out on the top of the table. Once a bias is acknowledged, one has the chance with others to look for facts.

When a student honors a teacher by leveling with him, the teacher has some duty to respect the confidence. If the principal lacked awareness that drugs were a problem for some of his students, he needed that information but not necessarily the name of the particular students involved.

As a counselor, I have seen tragic results of the misuse of drugs. The problem is serious, requiring the coordinated efforts of the total community. Mounting use of products for tension and headaches, pain and sleep, makes ours a drug-oriented society. The teacher can bring doctors and nurses, police and court officials into the classroom to share the task of presenting the facts on drugs and handling discussion without panic.

—**Martha W. Hunt,** *counselor, Mount Vernon (New York) High School.*

The fact that the teacher's planned lesson did not lead to meaningful debate and that a student's question provoked lively discussion suggests that the special unit on drugs may have lacked a certain objectivity and relevancy. Instead of being appalled by the turn of events, the teacher should have been ecstatic. The open and honest dialogue which followed the question could only have happened in an environment where students felt comfortable and respected. Panic represents concern with the reaction of school authorities and parents rather than with the interests of the students.

The teacher failed to make the most of an excellent teaching opportunity. His behavior turned off the students to a point where they did not attempt further discussion at other meetings.

It is not uncommon to find students who try marijuana and give it up after a few experimental trials. If a teacher responds emotionally to this situation, he will not be able to persuade students predisposed to continuation to seek assistance. And by reporting the situation to principal and parents, the teacher may inadvertently erode whatever positive behavior he might have to build on in the classroom.

Admittedly, psychological dependence on drugs is contrary to the educative process, and frequent use of any drug results in impaired performance. Teachers can have a great influence on the decision to begin or continue taking drugs. This can best be achieved by opening up lines of communication between teachers and students, not by refusing to tackle touchy subjects.

—**Marvin R. Levy,** *chairman, Health Education Division, Temple University, Philadelphia.*

The subject chosen for debate was good, but the drug topic contains so many unanswered questions that it's sometimes difficult to get people to participate.

The teacher didn't fail in preparing the lesson, but he failed in throwing out questions and bringing up interesting points. He should have tried to get more students to react.

This teacher shouldn't have been shocked when members started telling of their experiences with marijuana. He should have tried to find out why and how long they smoked it—and if they plan to do so again.

A teacher is not there to be a policeman, responsible for telling on students or turning in names. He is there to help students through teaching or any other means he thinks best. An experienced teacher would have facts —not ideas—and would present them in a meaningful way. He wouldn't tell what he thinks but what he knows.

—**Eric L. Ward,** *senior, West Philadelphia High School, Philadelphia.*

Bellevue Education Association

LESLIE E. SAYLOR, *president, Bellevue (Washington) Education Association; on full-time leave from Bellevue Elementary School.*

□ **In 1965, the Washington State** Legislature authorized professional negotiations between educators and school boards on all policy matters. By popular election in that same year, the Bellevue Education Association became the recognized employee organization empowered to represent Bellevue educators.

Although the law gave professional associations the right to negotiate, it gave school boards authority to set up the rules for negotiations. The Bellevue board was particularly insistent on its rights in the matter, and for some time professional negotiations were limited to "you tell us what you want and, if we can see our way clear to give it to you, maybe you will get it."

In the spring of 1968, a dispute regarding career-teacher salary potential led to an impasse and "stacking of contracts"* by association members. An Impasse Committee, appointed by the state superintendent of public instruction, was largely favorable to the association's viewpoint and the dispute was settled on terms acceptable to the association. Moreover, the Committee stressed the importance of the board's adoption of a mutually satisfactory agreement for a professional negotiations procedure.

The stacking of contracts by the association marked the first collective power move by Bellevue educators. Heartened by this success, association members increased their dues in order to hire an executive director. A 27-year-old noneducator, Ronn Robinson, who has a degree in political science and wide experience in public relations, politics, government, and business was selected for the job.

After intensive negotiations, settlement was reached in the late fall of 1968 on a professional negotiations procedural agreement—one of the first in the state—providing educators with the guaranteed right to negotiate with, rather than merely advise, the board. Essentially, the agreement provides that the board must meet, confer, and negotiate all policy matters with the association before adopting *any* board policy.

Negotiations take place at regular meet-and-confer sessions every other week and at scheduled formal sessions during the year. Negotiations occur at three levels. The association first meets with the superintendent. If no settlement is reached, talks continue with a committee of the school board. If settlement is still not reached, a meeting is held with the full board.

Negotiations are conducted with different association negotiators for various areas of negotiations. The depth of talent of the association negotiators is almost limitless. Instead of having a permanent negotiations team or committee, the association chooses the most informed and articulate spokesman for each separate negotiation. No expiration dates are assigned to negotiated agreements; once a policy is adopted by the board, it remains in force unless modified by future negotiations.

The negotiations process, as described, has been judiciously guarded and protected by the association. BEA has not hesitated to use the public press, the courts, or its own internal discipline and collective strength. The board appears now to fully respect the power and effectiveness of the association and in fact appears to respect the process of negotiation itself.

New responsibilities for decision making and the use of power which accompany the right to negotiate put stresses on the association. But as a result of persistence and effective leadership, positive gains have been made in these areas. Last year better internal unity was achieved by restructuring the organization in such a way as to give a real voice to special service and administrative personnel.

As the *Seattle Post-Intelligencer* commented in November 1970: "Bellevue is known for a fine teaching staff and a militant one, with a highly successful directorate. Bellevue teachers in the past five years have negotiated a set of district agreements they are willing to enforce in court and a salary [index] schedule higher than most in the state."

Negotiations in Bellevue have resulted in lower class loads, improved personnel policies, higher salaries, better working conditions, and more effective overall education. The primary goal of the association at present is the improvement of instruction through negotiations.

Each year individual educators stack their contracts. Sometimes it's necessary to hold contracts until certain negotiations are completed; other years this is merely an administrative procedure to remind the Bellevue board of teacher solidarity.

Another example of collective action is the manner in which the association supports local campaigns to pass the school levy, upon which most Washington school districts depend for up to 40 percent of their operating budgets. About 600 educators and parents join in this effort organized by Bellevue Education Association.

Members of the association are also active in state politics and association activities. The Bellevue Association has led a statewide fight over the past two years for state certification standards controlled by educators.

All in all the Bellevue Education Association, whose utmost concern is education of youth, does not wait for something good to happen. It makes good things happen! □

*Turning over teachers' contracts to the association to hold until the leadership hands them to the board.

Here's what junior-college faculties think...

□ **The NEA Research Division recently asked a national** representative probability sample of the teaching faculty in junior and community colleges their opinions about issues related to admission policies, publicly supported higher education, student unrest, collective action by faculty, and academic freedom. Responses came from 74.9 percent of the sample.

In reply to the question, "Do you believe institutions of higher education should de-emphasize the usual standards of academic aptitude and achievement for entering students?" about half (51.4 percent) answered "Yes," but most of them made qualifications:

23.7%—Yes, to the extent that all students desiring to do so may be enrolled
13.0—Yes, to the extent that every institution would enroll sufficient "poorly qualified" persons that they would represent at least 10 percent of the total enrollment
14.7—Yes, but the numbers of "poorly qualified" persons should be less than 10 percent of the total enrollment
37.4—No
11.2—Undecided.

Opposition to any de-emphasis of usual academic standards is higher in the Southeast (44.3 percent) and in the West (40.5 percent) than in the Northeast (32.4 percent) and in the Middle states (31.6 percent). Also, more faculty in natural sciences and mathematics (42.5 percent) and in vocational and occupational areas (45.0 percent) than faculty in the humanities (34.7 percent) and in the social sciences (29.7 percent) oppose this practice.

The admissions policy of an institution, according to a vast majority of faculty, should be established by trustees and/or faculty. Only 16.6 percent thought students should have major authority for establishing institutional policy. The faculty were asked to indicate *all* groups—trustees, faculty, and students—which should have *major authority* for establishing institutional policy about admission criteria. A majority of faculty indicated major authority should involve trustees (81.0 percent) and faculty (71.4 percent). The percentage of faculty who believe that certain groups individually and in combinations are *all* the groups which should have major authority for institutional policy about admission criteria is as follows:

Trustees and faculty	39.3%
Trustees only	27.9
Faculty only	16.2
Trustees, faculty, students	13.3
Faculty and students	2.6
Trustees and students	0.5
Students only	0.2
	100.0%

The majority of the respondents support the extension of free public education through junior college for all qualified persons: 64.3 percent support, 31.1 percent oppose, and 4.6 percent have no opinion. Support is higher among faculty in the West (70.4 percent) than in the Southeast (53.8 percent) and in the Middle states (61.4 percent). Also, the extent of faculty support seems to be related to the size of the employing institution: Support is indicated by 79.2 percent in the institutions enrolling 8,000 or more students; 64.7 percent in those enrolling 2,000 to 7,999; 58.8 percent in those enrolling 600 to 1,999; and 46.4 percent in those enrolling fewer than 600 students.

More faculty in public institutions (66.8 percent) than in nonpublic institutions (48.2 percent) support this policy. Support is higher among faculty in the social sciences (69.4 percent) and the humanities (69.3 percent) than in the natural sciences and mathematics (61.7 percent), in the vocational and occupational fields (58.8 percent), and in the professional and technical fields (56.2 percent). Support is higher among faculty with 10 to 19 years of experience in higher education (70.9 percent) than among faculty having less than 5 years of experience (60.9 percent), and is higher among faculty aged 40 to 49 (71.4 percent) than among faculty under 30 years (56.3 percent) and aged 30 to 39 (61.0 percent).

The percent of faculty supporting the extension of free public education through junior college for all qualified persons is not as high in 1970 (64.3 percent) as was found in a similar survey conducted by the NEA Research Division in 1965 (71.5 percent). In the earlier survey, 24.3 percent of the faculty were opposed and 4.2 percent indicated no opinion. The reduction in the national percentage of faculty supporting this policy reflects the significant decreases in the percents of faculty supporting this policy in the Southeast (66.8 percent in 1965; 53.8 percent in 1970) and in the West (78.8 percent in 1965 and 70.4 percent in 1970).

A policy which would extend free public education through the bachelor's degree for all qualified persons is supported by 37.7 percent and opposed by 54.6 percent, while 7.7 percent have no opinion. There has been little change in the opinion of two-year college faculty on this issue since 1965. The survey in 1965 showed support by 35.9 percent, opposition by 53.5 percent, and no opinion by 10.6 percent. The percents of faculty supporting this policy differ among subgroupings of faculty in a pattern similar to that observed in the opinions on the extension of free public education through junior college. (*Continued on next page*)

More than three-fourths of the faculty support the expulsion of students who engage in violence, destruction, or harassment on campus (79.7 percent). Only 13.8 percent oppose expulsion, and the remaining 6.5 percent have no opinion about it. Support of this policy in descending order is 91.2 percent among faculty in the professional and technical fields; 89.7 percent in the occupational and vocational fields; 84.7 percent among faculty in the natural sciences and mathematics; 76.3 percent in the social sciences; and 66.9 percent among faculty in the humanities. Opinion on this issue appears to be somewhat associated with age: The highest support was given by faculty aged 50 or more (88.7 percent); next highest, by faculty aged 40 to 49 (82.3 percent); and lowest support (though still substantial), by faculty aged 30 to 39 (74.9 percent) and below 30 years of age (72.3 percent).

A majority of faculty (72.0 percent) support the withholding of scholarship-fellowship funds from students engaging in disruptive activities on campus. Opposition is expressed by 19.8 percent and no opinion is indicated by 8.1 percent.

The percents of faculty supporting this policy differ among the subgroups of faculty in a pattern similar to that of opinion with regard to expulsion of students who engage in violence, destruction, or harassment on campus. However, in addition to these individual-related differences, the level of faculty support of this policy is somewhat lower in the public institutions (70.9 percent) than in nonpublic institutions (79.5 percent); is lower in the Northeast (59.9 percent) than in the other regions (ranging from 74.4 percent to 77.1 percent); and is lower in the largest institutions (67.2 percent) than in the next smallest (74.9 percent) and in the smallest institutions (81.7 percent).

The majority of the faculty sample believe all of the following three groups should have *major authority* for institutional policy regarding student protests: trustees, 84.5 percent; faculty, 67.5 percent; and students, 54.4 percent. The extent of faculty support for each group above and for the combinations of these groups is as follows:

Trustees, faculty, and students	43.1%
Trustees only	25.9
Trustees and faculty	12.5
Faculty only	7.2
Faculty and students	4.7
Students only	3.6
Trustees and students	3.0
	100.0%

A large majority (77.1 percent) of the faculty sample support the use of either professional negotiation or collective bargaining for developing faculty salary and welfare policies in institutions of higher education. Opposition was reported by 14.8 percent, and the remaining 8.1 percent indicated they have no opinion. The percent of faculty who support such collective action has increased during the past five years: In 1965, support was indicated by 63.2 percent; opposition, by 24.0 percent; and no opinion, by 12.8 percent. Proportionally fewer faculty in the Southeast (60.2 percent) than in the Northeast (82.6 percent), Middle states (82.1 percent), and West (78.7 percent) support this collective action.

The percentage of faculty supporting this practice decreases as enrollment size of the employing institutions decreases, with support given by 85.7 percent in the largest institutions; 79.1 percent in the next largest institutions; 73.4 percent in the next smallest institutions; and 61.4 in the smallest institutions. Support is higher among faculty in public institutions (80.0 percent) than in nonpublic institutions (58.5 percent).

More than two-thirds (69.0 percent) of the respondents said they believe faculty members should strike under some conditions. The question put to them was: "Do you believe faculty members in higher education should ever strike?"

12.9%—*Yes*, faculty members should strike the same as employees in *other occupations*

56.1—Yes, but only under *extreme* conditions and after all other means have failed

24.7—*No*, faculty members should *never* strike

6.3—Undecided.

Opposition to use of the strike is indicated by a larger percentage of faculty in the Southeast (30.0 percent) and in the West (26.3 percent) than in the Middle states (19.6 percent). More faculty in the smallest institutions oppose this practice (33.3 percent) than in each of the other size groupings in institutions (opposition by 23.3 percent in largest institutions, 24.2 percent in next largest, and 23.1 percent in next smallest).

Opposition is indicated by more faculty in nonpublic institutions (38.7 percent) than in public institutions (22.5 percent), and in the professional and technical fields (36.3 percent) and in the vocational and occupational fields (31.4 percent) than in the remaining teaching fields (humanities, 19.4 percent; natural sciences and mathematics, 20.6 percent; and social sciences, 24.0 percent).

Opposition seems to increase with age of faculty: 16.1 percent of faculty aged less than 30 years and 21.4 percent of faculty aged 30 to 39 oppose this practice compared with opposition by 24.0 percent of faculty aged 40 to 49 and by 34.9 percent of faculty aged 50 or more.

Faculty opinions indicate a downward shift in the general status of academic freedom in two-year institutions during the past five years. In 1965, 59.3 percent of the faculty indicated that their institution afforded them all the academic freedom that most faculty members would want or expect *(much freedom)*. In 1970, this extent of academic freedom was indicated by 51.9 percent. The proportion of faculty indicating there are some important restraints *(a fair degree of academic freedom)* was 37.0 percent in 1965 and 43.1 percent in 1970. The percentages of faculty indicating they have *little academic freedom* were 3.7 percent in 1965 and 5.0 percent in 1970.

—NEA Research Division.

NEW NEA PUBLICATIONS & AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS

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DGWS Research Reports: Women in Sports (#1). First in a series. Reports on results of research in physical education and related fields for use by those working with girls and women who are involved in competitive sports or who are learning and performing motor skills. 120 pp. $3. 243-06920. American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.

Drugs and Youth (#2). Donald J. Wolk, editor. No. 1 in the series, *Teaching Social Studies in an Age of Crisis*. Explores a variety of drug topics from student attitudes regarding drugs to psychological and sociological reasons for drug use. Contains an appendix with practical information on drug abuse. 104 pp. $2.25. 492-15296. National Council for the Social Studies.

Elementary School Media Programs: An Approach for Individualizing Instruction (#3). Introduces the media program concept and offers practical assistance in establishing or expanding school media programs as an approach to individualizing instruction. 32 pp. $1. 281-08888. American Association of Elementary-Kindergarten-Nursery Educators.

Environmental Crisis: What You Can Do (#4). Leaflet package. Contains tips on specific things you can do to improve the environment and lists further sources of information. (One copy of this leaflet is included in the *Environmental Crisis: What the Individual Can Do*, a filmstrip packet listed in the January "New NEA Publications and Audiovisual Materials.") Package of 30, $1.50. 382-11742. Publications Division.

Estimates of School Statistics, 1970-71 (#5). Research Report 1970-R15. Gives estimates for 1970-71 and revised estimates for 1969-70 on salaries of teachers; revenues; expenditures; and numbers of school boards, board members, superintendents, pupils, and teachers. 38 pp. $1.50. 435-25462. Research Division.

Faculty Salary Schedules in Colleges and Universities, 1969-70 (#6). Research Report 1970-R13. Summarizes scheduled minimum and maximum salaries by type and size of institution and by rank of faculty. Analyzes increment structure and lists scheduled salaries in each institution. Also provides examples of salary schedule documents. 45 pp. $1.25. 435-25458. Research Division.

Guidelines for Certification of High School Coaches (#7). Presents, in a series of articles, professional viewpoints and recommendations with suggestions for state implementation. Includes a proposal that should be fully explored by key sports groups in every state. 40 pp. $2. 241-25138. AAHPER.

Nutrition for Athletes: A Handbook for Coaches (#8). Answers questions concerning the appropriate diet for the young athlete. 64 pp. $2. 241-25140. AAHPER.

Professional Status, Concerns, and Reflections (#9). Winter 1971 issue of the *Journal of NAWDC*. Concerns women in the education professions. 48 pp. $2. 596-17070. National Association of Women Deans and Counselors.

Salary Schedules for Teachers, 1970-71 (#10). Gives trends in salaries and summary tables of median salaries by preparation level, enrollment stratum, and region. Lists 1,176 school systems and gives minimums and maximums by preparation level and maximum placement for experience on the B.A. scale. 126 pp. $3. 435-25456. Research Division.

Schools for the 70's and Beyond: A Call to Action (#11). Seeks to stimulate a nationwide dialogue on schooling by the profession, the public, and students. Presents the main report of NEA's Schools for the 70's program. An excerpt from this staff report appeared in the February 1971 issue of TODAY'S EDUCATION. (See the following page for further details.) 148 pp. Cloth, $4, 381-11964; paper, $2.25, 381-11962. Center for the Study of Instruction.

Setting New Education Communication Priorities (#12). No. 2 in the *Communications Development Series* (60-minute tape cassette). Tells why and how the setting of new communication priorities has become mandatory in school districts and how these priorities can match up with the kinds of system change that are in the offing. Drawn from presentations at the 1970 National School Public Relations Association National Seminar. $12. 418-12780. National School Public Relations Association.

Teacher Education: Future Directions (#13). Margaret Lindsey, editor. 1970 ATE Annual Conference Proceedings. Examines education's role in the early 1900's and traces its development to 1970. Forecasts what education can be tomorrow. Discusses politics and power, values in society, student power, staff differentiation, teachers in the ghetto, negotiation, and the federal government's role in teacher education. Summarizes participants' reactions and gives a charge to action for improving education in the future. 160 pp. $4. 861-24492. Association of Teacher Educators.

Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1970 (#14). Research Report 1970-R14. Reports status of supply and demand for public school teachers, by major assignment, in the fall of 1970. Also reports number of new teachers graduating in each state and level of education of all public school teachers and new teachers. 75 pp. $1.75. 435-25460. Research Division.

Technology in Music Teaching (#15). January 1971 issue of the *Music Educators Journal*. Examines the application of instructional technology to music education. Centers on a systems approach to teaching and the instructional module, objectives, and resources. Includes information about the overhead projector, slides, filmstrips, motion pictures, TV, and computers. 156 pp. $2.50. N.D. 325-10394. Music Educators National Conference.

Toward an Aesthetic Education (#16). Papers presented at the 1970 MENC National Biennial Convention. Introduces an aesthetics approach to education, presents means of studying and evaluating aesthetic behaviors, surveys curriculum development in aesthetic education, and explores teaching applications for both music and allied arts programs. 200 pp. $5. N.D. 321-10414. MENC.

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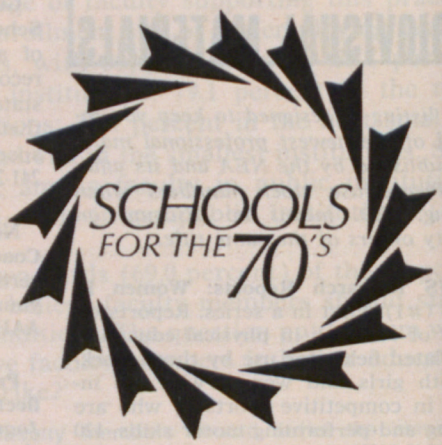
AEW Planning Guide, 1971. Gives specific suggestions on how to plan the 1971 American Education Week observances (October 24-30) organized around the theme, "Help Schools Bridge the Gap." Includes descriptions of and an order form for AEW materials. (More 1971 AEW materials will be listed next month.) 20 pp. 053-02026. American Education Week, P.O. Box 327, Hyattsville, MD 20781.

Dear Teacher. Lists resource materials in health, physical education, and recreation for the elementary school teacher. Includes such topics as drug abuse and sex education, outdoor and environmental education, games and dances, safety policies, fitness, movement education, and sport skills. AAHPER.

To Move Schools into the Seventies and Beyond



Schools for the 70's is more than just a series of books. It is a challenge to make every school a showplace of excellence by 1976—the year the nation celebrates its bicentennial.

The newly issued *Schools for the 70's and Beyond: A Call to Action* challenges the teacher to grab the system by the horns. It also identifies problems in several areas—the instructional program, the teachers, the students, and school finance as well as the overall system—and then suggests many options for action to be tested throughout the country. (See No. 11 on the preceding page of this issue for details.)

Four volumes in a preliminary series and four in an auxiliary series have already been published as a part of this program and have been listed previously in this feature. A brochure describing these eight books is available from the NEA Publications Division.

The books in the preliminary series are *Curriculum for the 70's: An Agenda for Invention* (A. W. Foshay); *Decision Making and Schools for the 70's* (William Pharis, John Walden, and Lloyd Robison); *On Staying Awake: Talks with Teachers* (Ole Sand); and *The Reform of Urban Schools* (Mario D. Fantini). Those in the auxiliary series are *The Practical: A Language for Curriculum* (Joseph J. Schwab); *A Selected Guide to Curriculum Literature: An Annotated Bibliography* (Louise L. Tyler); *The Study of Curriculum Plans* (Arlene Payne); and *Values and the Curriculum: A Report of the Fourth International Curriculum Conference* (William G. Carr, editor).

In addition to these volumes, a series of "discussion-starter" tapes have been designed to supplement the books. Their intent is to spark an intensive, nationwide dialogue-and-action program on the crucial questions of education. The topics are based on the five problem areas of the main report. Several of Ole Sand's talks with teachers—drawn from his volume, *On Staying Awake: Talks with Teachers*—are also available on tape. Watch these pages for further information.

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RESEARCH CLUES

This regular monthly feature of brief research summaries is designed to encourage the teacher to become familiar with significant research in education and to conduct action research of his own.

Although knowledge of research findings in education can be helpful to the teacher in developing his own instructional program, he needs to remember that research studies on a particular topic do not always agree and that no single study or series of studies should be considered to reveal the final answer.

This month's summaries are based on a new NEA publication, Teaching High School Science *by John J. Koran, Jr., No. 10 in the series,* What Research Says to the Teacher; *a study done by Donald Brieland; and the report,* The First Year of Sesame Street: An Evaluation, *by Samuel Ball and Gerry Ann Bogatz.*

For possible reporting in a later issue, readers are requested to send in information about recent research studies on the effect of a student's feeling toward his teachers on his learning in their classes.

What does research say about the use of multimedia systems in teaching high school science?

Much of the research is encouraging. For instance, researchers with the Project Physics course point out that such a system "enables the teacher to spend more time guiding individual students and small groups since the teacher spends less time teaching and explaining to the class as a whole."

With multimedia or audiotutorial systems, which integrate many materials, audiovisual aids, contexts for student learning, and methods of teacher behavior, the potential for using independent study increases. Teachers using a multimedia approach to the Project Physics course felt that their students showed more interest in the subject, asked more questions, and demonstrated deeper understanding in small- and large-group discussions. The students responded well to the approach as indicated by gain scores in achievement over a trial unit.

In addition, the teachers felt that they got to know the students better as their role shifted from purveyor of information to tutor-guide. Promising results of the type described have also been noted in other physics programs, earth science instruction, and biology. It appears that the multimedia approach to instruction is an effective instructional system for certain types of learning tasks and students and a step toward the ideal of an individualized program of instruction for science students.

Researchers point out, however, that although the use of appropriate media appears to be an effective instructional

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method, the science teacher should be aware of the inquiry goals of science and not narrow the potential for student inquiry through the use of restricting media. The media selected, as well as the teaching style, should correspond with appropriate objectives in science.

Does moving during the school year hurt the child's performance in school?

There is no research to show significant difference in achievement between youngsters who move and those who stay in one location, according to Donald Brieland of the University of Illinois at Urbana. Dr. Brieland reported recently to a forum on the effect of a shift of environment on children. He added that a child often adjusts more easily if the shift takes place during the school year because he can then form new friendships faster.

Does the TV program "Sesame Street" effectively teach three-to-five-year-olds certain basic facts and skills?

Yes, according to an extensive new evaluation of the show's teaching effectiveness by the Educational Testing Service of Princeton, New Jersey. ETS conducted research on the program in large cities and in suburban and rural areas. The study was based on tests given to 943 children, including 731 with disadvantaged backgrounds.

Principal findings of the study were:

- Both boys and girls who watched the program showed greater gains in learning than those who did not. This was true for disadvantaged inner-city children, advantaged suburban children, isolated rural children, and those whose first language was not English.
- Children who watched the show the most gained the most.
- The skills that received the most time and attention on the program were generally the skills that were best learned.
- Disadvantaged children who watched *Sesame Street* frequently made gains surpassing those of middle-class children who watched infrequently.
- Three-year-old children made greater gains than the older children.
- Children who watched the show with their mothers and discussed it with them later learned the most.

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What Should Bruce Do?

☐ Bruce looked longingly at Sid's chocolate ice cream cone, but he spent his own dessert money on candy that he could share with the other boys. Wouldn't it be neat, he thought, if there were something about me that would make people like me even if I didn't keep doing things for them all the time.

Bruce had never been able to think of anything that people could like about him so he went through life doing things that would make people act as though they liked him.

For instance, he always offered to lend his homework to people who hadn't done theirs, and he'd give up his turn at bat when recess was almost over if someone wanted an extra turn. If one of the boys had to clean the garage on Saturday, Bruce would help him, even though he'd rather be playing ball. Whenever anybody asked a favor of Bruce, he obliged—in fact, he usually volunteered before he was asked.

"Good old Bruce," the fellows would say, "I knew you'd do it." Or just, "Attaboy, Bruce!"

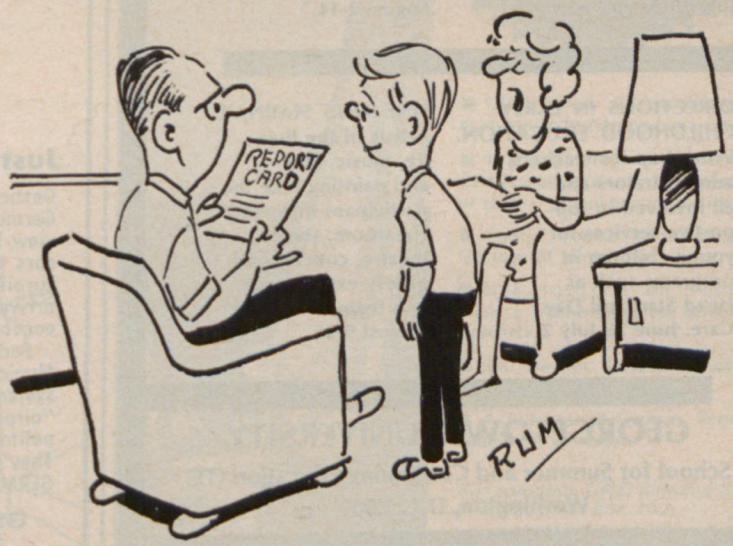
In spite of what the boys said, Bruce felt sure they were laughing at him behind his back. In fact, he had a feeling that they probably disliked him because he was such a soft touch. He even hated himself because he acted the way he did. Then he'd say to himself, "Oh, well, at least they can't say I never do anything for anybody. It's better than being like Sam or Eddy, who never want to share anything with anybody and always have some excuse for not helping anybody."

That didn't help him feel much better, though. He wished he could change, but he was afraid that if he quit doing things for the kids they probably wouldn't even say hello to him.

What should Bruce do?

Thoughts To Think Aloud:

1. Is it possible that Bruce might have just as many friends if he stopped doing favors unless they involved doing something he really wanted to do?
2. How could Bruce start refusing requests and still let the boys know that he wanted to be friendly?
3. If Bruce really wants to change, where might he turn for help? ☐



"So he's not the smartest boy in school. You're not president of the company."

TIPS FOR TOURISTS

□ **The following suggestions and tidbits of travel** know-how may be helpful to those planning to travel abroad this summer. Some of the tips apply to both sexes, but a number of them are specifically for women tourists.

First, here are the suggestions that either sex might find useful:

• Borrow or purchase a passport case, even though it is not essential. In addition to holding your precious passport, it has separate compartments for traveler's checks, landing cards, and both American bills and foreign currency.

• If you wear glasses, take two or more pairs. (Ditto for sunglasses.) Even those with an outdated prescription may be useful.

• By all means, get an up-to-date currency converter for the countries you'll be visiting. Many American banks and airlines give them free.

• If you are packing for a trip that involves many brief stops, place each garment on a wire hanger, cover with a plastic dry-cleaner's bag, fold and place in the suitcase. Enough air is trapped in the plastic bags to prevent most wrinkles and having the clothes on hangers speeds the process of packing and unpacking.

THREE FOR THE 70's. Workshop to familiarize teachers and curriculum designers in white primary and secondary schools with the contributions of Indian and Spanish-speaking North Americans in U.S. history. July 26-August 4.

CONSUMER EDUCATION. Workshop for teachers of grades K-12 to provide basic knowledge and materials for designing consumer education curricula exploring the individual's role as a consumer in today's society. August 2-14.

DIRECTIONS IN EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION. Workshop for teachers, administrators and all involved in supportive services for young children in programs such as Head Start and Day Care. June 28-July 2.

FINE ARTS SEMINAR. Artists of the theatre, music, film and painting take the participant through classroom, studio, theatre, concert and gallery experiences as a team. August 9-20.

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• Take your most comfortable *old* shoes for the many miles you'll walk while sight-seeing and shopping. Those you've merely "broken in" won't do. Women's shoes should have low heels and soles that are thick enough to protect feet from lumpy cobblestones.

• Shoeshine packets encased in foil are a real convenience. The walks and roadways of many tourist attractions are covered with a gritty gray sand that soon makes any pair of shoes look disreputable. A rub-off with a shoeshine pad (impregnated with colorless liquid) brings about instant improvement.

• Consider the convenience of gummed stickers already addressed for the cards, letters, and packages you plan to send to friends and relatives.

• Small foreign language dictionaries and phrase books that fit into pocket or purse can be a boon on those all-too-frequent occasions when you can't make yourself understood. They're also a help in coping with menus that give you few clues as to whether you are being offered fried octopus or reindeer fricassee.

• Include a jar of powdered orange juice substitute if you're accustomed to starting the day with a drink rich in vitamin C. Fruit juice seldom comes with breakfast unless you pay extra, and a small glassful (often lukewarm) can be 60¢ or more.

• Take along a representative collection of the various pills and capsules you have needed from time to time, making a note of which is what if you are at all absentminded. Include plenty of aspirin and stomach-soothing antacids, as well as medications for diarrhea and for constipation.

Now for the tips designed for women tourists, who generally outnumber the male members of a tour by a wide margin.

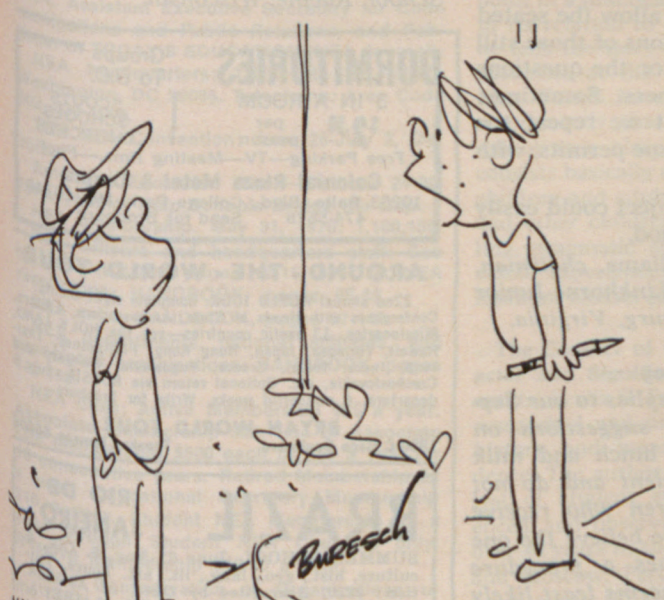
• Instead of the wool dresses or tweed suits often recommended for chilly days in Europe, we recommend doubleknit outfits made up of separate units so that you can peel off or put on layers. Include one or two A-line dresses or pleated skirts for comfort on planes or buses.

• The ideal outer garment would be a raincoat or waterproof topcoat that is dressy enough for evening but plain enough for daytime wear. Bonded fabric has the advantage of being highly wrinkle-resistant. If you're the shivery type, you might want a coat with a zip-out lining. Plastic rainbonnets are a must, and a collapsible umbrella is desirable.

• Take along at least one pair of support hose in hopes that this might lessen fatigue and prevent swollen feet and ankles.

• The last suggestion may be heresy: Don't take a horsey handbag with seven compartments and eight zippers. You'll go mad rummaging around in a frenzied attempt to find your change purse, your lipstick, or even your precious passport. You can get along very well with a bag only slightly larger than average. Long and fairly shallow ones open up wide enough to reveal their contents, and your passport can lie flat and protected on the bottom.

A dozen other suggestions come to mind, but we will forgo them all in favor of reminding prospective travelers to allow room for expansion in their luggage and for the extra weight that is inevitable as they shop their way from country to country and tuck acquisitions in their suitcases. One parting word: Those travelers who are the least encumbered are also the happiest ones. □



"I'm absolutely not allowed out until I do my homework. Can you wait out here for five minutes?"

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NEA SPECIAL SERVICES

Tax-Deferred Annuities

So that members of the united teaching profession may have a better understanding of a fringe benefit that is available to them, the NEA Special Services Division has prepared the following questions and answers on tax-deferred annuities:

What is an annuity? It is a form of investment that guarantees a series of regular monthly payments for a guaranteed amount of time; it is, generally speaking, a retirement income.

What is a tax-sheltered annuity? It is an individual, supplementary retirement plan that is generally available to public school employees and employees of educational and charitable organizations. To participate in such a plan, the investor sets aside a part of his salary by arrangement with his employer and uses it to purchase an annuity contract. This money is not included in current income for federal income tax purposes.

Are these funds ever subject to taxation? Yes, but not until the money —with accumulated interest or earnings—is actually received, either as a cash withdrawal or as annuity payments.

Is there any advantage to having the tax payments deferred? Generally speaking, yes. During retirement, individuals usually have less taxable income and a lower tax rate than during working years.

Are Social Security benefits affected by contributions to a tax-sheltered annuity? No, Social Security contributions and benefits are based on gross earnings before any reduction for contributions to a tax-sheltered annuity.

Are there different types of annuities? Yes. *A fixed annuity* is a plan that guarantees at the outset the exact amount and minimum number of payments. A participant knows beforehand what his minimum return is going to be on his investment. A *variable annuity*, which some states do not permit, is a plan in which payments are tied to an investment program rather than guaranteed as to amount. The amount of retirement income payment fluctuates with the market value of the securities held. The objective of a variable annuity is to keep the investor's purchasing power roughly parallel with the cost of living, although this result cannot, of course, be promised. Actual results will be determined by the marketplace and not by cost of living indices. The combination *fixed and variable annuity* (where permitted by state law) is a plan whereby an investor may allocate his payments in any proportion between the fixed and the variable benefit annuity.

The NEA Special Services Division sponsors a tax-deferred annuity program. For a free prospectus, write to the NEA Tax-Deferred Annuity Program, 216 E. Monroe St., Springfield, IL 62701.

IDEA EXCHANGE

(*Continued from page* 11)

team misses a question, the other team takes it. If the second team cannot answer it, I then throw it to the students who are seated—giving them a chance to "redeem" themselves in the eyes of their classmates. The team with the most members standing at the end of the game wins.

Questions I find most effective are short-answer questions that review and pinpoint facts, concepts, and principles. (Example: What part of the cell regulates all activities of the cell?) Many students have indicated that a Science Bee before a test can serve as a study guide. This, of course, is true because we always review the most important material, which helps organize the study process and makes students aware of the items they need to emphasize in their study.

Often after we have covered the most vital material, I allow the seated students to ask questions of those still standing, but I monitor the questions for clarity and fairness. Sometimes students request that we repeat the whole procedure, if time permits, with the same questions.

Teachers of any subject could easily implement this method.

—Mary Louise Williams, *chairman, Science Department, Linkhorne Junior High School, Lynchburg, Virginia.*

Lunch and Milk Money

◆ *From among the replies to our September request for suggestions on ways to handle the lunch and milk money that are efficient and do not embarrass the children who receive free lunch or milk, we believe the one that follows describes a procedure that is efficient and seems least likely to cause any child embarrassment.*

We inaugurated a system whereby we bill the children after the first of the month for lunches eaten during the previous month. This has the great approval of the parents in our suburban community. Those children who receive free lunches also receive a coin envelope as do the other children. Each envelope has the name of a child and the total due. The envelopes of those receiving free lunches simply state that nothing is due. Since all the children receive envelopes, no one knows who is getting free lunches.

—C. C. Dethardt, *principal, Cottage-Swanson Schools, Brookfield, Wisconsin.*

Equate Time and Money

Teachers know how difficult it is to get students to see any relationship between academic subjects—and how even more difficult it is for them to see the relationship of academic subjects to their total environment.

One day, in a class on the "History of the Orchestra," we needed to discuss history, per se. I was astonished to discover that some students—seventh graders—didn't understand the meanings of such terms as *century, decade,* and *quarter of a century.*

By chance, I compared the span of time within a century to pennies in a dollar. A dollar is 100 pennies; each penny is symbolic of a year; therefore, a dollar is symbolic of a century, a quarter is symbolic of one quarter century, 50¢ is symbolic of a half century, and 10¢ is symbolic of a decade. This trick worked like a charm.

—Wallace M. Cheatham, *vocal music teacher, Mitchell Junior High School, Racine, Wisconsin.*

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FOR YOUR INFORMATION

HELEN BAIN, NEA President; SAM M. LAMBERT, Executive Secretary; JOHN D. SULLIVAN, Assistant Executive Secretary for Communications and Public Relations, and Publisher of TODAY'S EDUCATION (NEA Journal).

NEA headquarters: 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. Telephone: Area Code 202, 833-4000.

1971 NEA Convention: June 26-July 2, Detroit.

American Education Week—October 24-30, 1971. Theme: Help Schools Bridge the Gap.

NEA membership, May 31, 1970: 1,100,155.

NEA officers and headquarters staff: See NEA HANDBOOK pages 10-15, 374-376. NEA resolutions: HANDBOOK, pages 66-88.

NEA units: HANDBOOK, pages 97-142.

NEA departments, national affiliates, and associated organizations: HANDBOOK, pages 143-168.

NEA dues: Active Membership $25 a year. Associate Membership $25. Life or Associate Life Membership $500 each or $55 a year for 10 consecutive years. Retired Membership $2 a year. Educational Secretary Membership $10 a year. Student NEA Membership $2 a year through Student NEA Chapters only. Reserve Membership $12.50 a year.

World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession: Information free from WCOTP, 1330 Mass. Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20005; see HANDBOOK, page 324.

BOOKSHELF

Outstanding Education Books of 1969-70

☐ **Pi Lambda Theta, national honor and** professional association for women in education, prepared this list of outstanding education books under the direction of Margaret Chisholm, assistant professor of librarianship, the University of Maryland, College Park, with the cooperation and advice of panels of educators selected to review each major category of books. The list, which is drawn from a comprehensive list of approximately 665, is made available without charge to the National Education Association for publication in TODAY'S EDUCATION.

It has been compiled from books with a 1969 or 1970 copyright received between July 16, 1969, and July 15, 1970.

The evaluators, who were chosen from the major fields of education, represent universities, school systems, and major professional organizations throughout the country. Each evaluator was asked to rate only the books in his major field.

Pi Lambda Theta publishes the comprehensive list of education books, *Education Book List, 1969-70.* Copies of the complete list ($1.50 each) may be obtained from Pi Lambda Theta, Suite 800, 1510 H Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20005.

Address inquiries regarding purchase of books to the individual publishers.

Current Trends and Issues in Education

The Lives of Children: The Story of the First Street School. George Dennison. The author believes our schools can be used in a profoundly regenerative way—if their primary concern is the lives of the children themselves. He delineates this viewpoint in a practical description of freedom in its relation to growth and learning as he tells the story of his own teaching experiences at the First Street School on New York's Lower East Side. Dennison recommends that we cease thinking of school as a place and learn that school consists basically of relationships between children and adults and between children and other children. Written in a compelling, pragmatic style, the book recounts actual experiences in the school. 308 pp. Random House. $6.95.

The Conflict of Generations: The Character and Significance of Student Movements. Lewis S. Feuer. This is a carefully researched and provocative study of the history and meaning of student dissidence. The author, an acknowledged analyst of student movements, has experienced and observed student politics for over 40 years in the United States, Tokyo, and Moscow. Perceptive sections of the book cover the Berkeley and Columbia conflicts, the New Left, and alienation. Analyses of student agitation and rebellion in Germany, Poland, Russia, Hungary, and China are also included. This comprehensive survey closely examines the political, social, and economic conditions which set the stage for generational conflicts. 543 pp. Basic Books. $12.50.

Educational Sociology and Educational Anthropology

Society, Schools, and Learning. Wilbur B. Brookover and Edsel L. Erickson. The authors' primary objective is to encourage an awareness of and a concern for how a student's ability to learn, as well as what he learns, is shaped by the social context within which he functions. Individual differences in learning are examined in the context of the social environment. An important section is devoted to the effects of segregation and the education of students disadvantaged by race and class. 149 pp. Allyn. $3.50 in paperback.

International Education

The Political Dilemma of Popular Education: An African Case. David B. Abernethy. This case study of the relationship between education and political development in a new nation, Nigeria, generates hypotheses that may apply to many geographical areas. Using a conception of political development as involving greater overall capacity and productivity, greater equality, and greater sociopolitical integration, the author concludes that the rapid expansion of free primary education in Southern Nigeria during the 1950's has had negative consequences for the country's political modernization. The perceptive final chapter offers strategies for relating educational development more closely to the needs of modernizing nations. 357 pp. Stanford University Press. $10.

Psychology of Childhood and Adolescence; Studies of Childhood and Youth

The Psychology of the Child. Jean Piaget and Bärbel Inhelder. Piaget presents a comprehensive synthesis of his child psychology, tracing the stages of cognitive development over the entire period of childhood from infancy to adolescence. This definitive summary of his life's work, succinctly presented by Piaget and his collaborator, covers the sensorimotor level, the semiotic or symbolic function, the "concrete" operations of thought, interpersonal relations, and the preadolescent. 173 pp. Basic Books. $5.95.

Special Education and Exceptional Children

Poverty and Mental Retardation: A Causal Relationship. Rodger L. Hurley. With courage and compassion, the author

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Administration and Supervision

Developing Taxonomies of Organizational Behavior in Education Administration. Edited by Daniel E. Griffiths. Four research teams from different universities attempted to answer this question: Does taxonomy provide a useful method for understanding organizational behavior as it appears within educational settings? Four general theories were selected, each of which appeared to be germane to organizational behavior. From each of these theoretical positions, the research teams attempted to create a taxonomy, each of which would be assessed by being subjected to a common test. 277 pp. Rand McNally. $2.95 in paperback.

Curriculum and Teaching Methodology

Supervision and Curriculum Renewal: A Systems Approach. Kathryn V. Feyereisen, A. John Fiorino, and Arlene T. Nowak. This book presents a systems approach to supervision and curriculum renewal which is grounded in modern organization theory. The authors describe in detail a curriculum and instruction system with a supervisory subsystem in a self-regulating, self-adapting, and self-renewing organizational setting. 347 pp. Appleton-Century-Crofts. $6.50.

Preschool, Kindergarten, and Elementary School Education

The Kindergarten: Its Encounter with Educational Thought in America. Evelyn Weber. The author traces the intellectual and philosophical development of kindergartens from their inception to the present, presents the challenge of implementing effective curriculum change in kindergarten, and identifies the varied and divergent pressure elements in the current educational scene. The book concludes that the solution of the cited problems promises more rational directives for teachers of young children and more effective programs for early childhood. 282 pp. Teachers College Press. $5.95 in paperback.

Secondary Education

The High School of the Future: A Memorial to Kimball Wiles. Edited by William M. Alexander. Distinguished educators collaborate to honor the memory of Kimball Wiles with commentaries on his "High School of the Future." (At the time of his death, Dr. Wiles was dean of the College of Education, the University of Florida.) This book provides predictions and insights of outstanding educators on what education may become in the year 2000. The projections are developed in such topics as the society of the future, the individual and his school, the program of the school of the future, teachers and reading, and leadership for developing the school of the future. 262 pp. Merrill. $6.75.

Reading

Teach Them All To Read: Theory, Methods, and Materials for Teaching the Disadvantaged. S. Alan Cohen. The author presents a study of the perceptual dysfunctions in disadvantaged children and describes specific methods and materials to remediate these problems. His recommendations for effective programs are based on four models: the information-processing model, the hierarchy-of-needs model, the syndrome model, and the reading model. Important distinctions are established between learning readiness and reading readiness. The major thesis is that classroom instructional methods, not the environment, make the difference in the reading ability of disadvantaged children. 329 pp. Random House. $7.50.

Reading: What Can Be Measured? Roger Farr. This analytical monograph attempts to organize and synthesize the research literature on measurement and evaluation in reading. The author explores measurement problems in reading, raises critical issues concerning instructional practices in reading, and asks two major questions: Can reading tests accurately assess reading behavior? Can what they measure serve as a basis for organizing classroom instruction? Farr does not provide definitive answers, but he does clarify measurement issues related to these problem areas. 299 pp. International Reading Association. $3.50 in paperback.

How To Increase Reading Ability: A Guide to Developmental and Remedial Methods. Albert J. Harris. The comprehensive scope of this book (a fifth edition) makes it useful as an introduction to the field of reading, as a guide for diagnosis and remediation, and as a reference for specialists and supervisors. The first part of the book deals with the overall classroom program; the next part with methods for evaluating and diagnosing group and individual needs; the final section with developmental and remedial teaching of specific skills. Special emphasis is given to reading readiness, methods of teaching beginning reading, objective measurement of reading disability, and the causation of reading disabilities. 570 pp. McKay. $8.50.

Reading: A Linguistic Perspective. Ronald Wardhaugh. Possible applications of linguistic knowledge to the teaching of reading have long intrigued reading researchers. The author characterizes as speculative in approach his book, which attempts to relate the current state of

linguistic theory and knowledge of English to the teaching of reading. Incorporated in the text are recent developments in English orthography, syntax, semantics, and dialect. 170 pp. Harcourt. $4.95; $2.95 in paperback.

Mathematics

How Children Learn Mathematics: Teaching Implications of Piaget's Research. Richard W. Copeland. Jean Piaget's research serves as the foundation for this presentation on methods for teaching mathematics in elementary education. The emphasis is placed on how children learn math rather than on teaching techniques. The reader perceives mathematics from the child's viewpoint as he progresses through various stages of development. Emphasizing that the teacher's role is that of a skillful interviewer, Copeland describes diagnostic tests, interview techniques, and the use of laboratory materials by the teacher. 310 pp. Macmillan. $7.95.

Health, Physical Education, and Recreation

Knowledge and Understanding in Physical Education. American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. This pioneer effort in setting down the body of knowledge for physical education, was developed to meet the teacher's need for clear-cut statements of the facts and understandings underlying exercises and activities in the physical education program. It presents scientific facts and principles underlying the acquisition and performance of motor skills and organized activities and assesses the organic requirements and procedures for proper and safe participation, as well as the understandings which are essential for individuals who assume responsibility in planning for good health. 136 pp. American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. $5 in paperback.

Research in Physical Education: A Critical View. Lawrence F. Locke. This monograph initiates a professional dialogue on the role of research in the conduct of physical education. The author outlines the factors that determine the role of research, probes into the reasons why research has had such insignificant influence on physical education, and discusses the positive role it could play if conducted under proper conditions. 50 pp. Teachers College Press. $1.95 in paperback.

Home Economics, Consumer Education, and Family Living

Nutrition and Diet Therapy. Sue Rodwell Williams. The author's focus is primarily upon nutrition and human health in nursing. The book may serve students in dietetics and health fields, as well as physicians, nurses, nutritionists, dieticians, dentists, public health workers, and health educators. Clinical application is made of all scientific principles, and increased emphasis is given to the role of nutrition in public health, basic nursing specialties, and in clinical management of disease—all in the context of human need. 686 pp. C. V. Mosby Co. $8.95.

Teaching Machines and Programed Instruction; Language and Learning Labs

Run, Computer, Run: The Mythology of Educational Innovation. Anthony G. Oettinger. First in a new series, this book explores the effects of technological change on the economy, public policies, and the character of society. Claiming to be a believer in the potential of educational technology, Oettinger explores its uses and abuses, its promises and disillusionments. He also points out the need to distinguish between the long-range promises of educational technology and the technology which is ready for immediate utilization. 302 pp. Harvard University Press. $5.95.

Higher Education

Colleges of the Forgotten Americans: A Profile of State Colleges and Regional Universities. E. Alden Dunham. The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education has sponsored this book as the second in a series of descriptive and statistical profiles planned to provide an overview of major types and functions of U.S. colleges and universities. The author surveyed the four-year state colleges and regional universities (basically the 279 institutional members of the American Association of State Colleges and Universities), which view themselves as multipurpose teaching institutions educating the middle-class backbone of the nation—those whom Richard Nixon calls "the forgotten Americans." The author gives an account based on firsthand impressions of the institutions which produce almost half the nation's teachers. His prediction is that their future role may be in training for the doctor of arts degree—a nonresearch teaching degree. 206 pp. McGraw. $5.95. □

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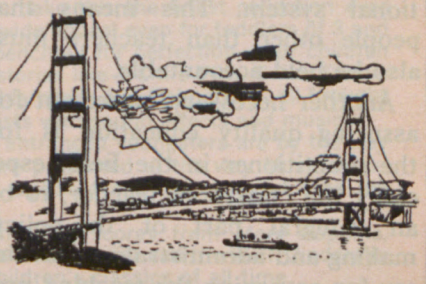

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AFTER ALL

◇ JOURNAL *editors invited NEA President Helen Bain to use this month's "After All" page to discuss accountability—the subject of this month's special feature (pages 41-56).*

□ **Holding teachers accountable for** the performance of their students is little short of frightening under conditions that now exist. Quality education requires more than skilled teachers; it requires, among other things, adequate financing of education, wise administration of our schools, optimum facilities and equipment for schools, and positive parental involvement in the educational system. This means that people other than teachers must also be held accountable.

Another necessary ingredient for assuring quality education is for the practitioner in the field, especially the classroom teacher, to be an integral part of the policy-making and administrative machinery for governing the teaching profession. Through the years, the NEA has moved toward such professionalization. The right of teachers to have their local association deal on their behalf with boards of education is a major breakthrough because it enables teachers to participate directly in determining policies and procedures that most directly affect them.

Surely this right is an imperative one, but further breakthroughs are needed. It is now very clear that we must work with increasing vigor to bring about legislation in each state that will establish the profession's right to do the following: approve teacher education programs of all types; govern the issuing of initial licenses and advanced credentialing; enforce standards of ethics and practices; and design and promote research and programs to improve teacher education, including in-service education.

We are aware that obtaining the legal right to govern is only the beginning, for a law is no better than the use to which it is put. We must be ready, therefore, to serve in other than advisory ways.

Some people will question whether granting the profession the right to govern itself will produce anything better than exists at present. One obvious answer is that such a step would make it difficult for the profession not to accept responsibility for the ethical and competent performance of its members. But this is somewhat begging the question.

Far more important is the fact that it would establish a new context for teachers whereby they would have decision-making powers in professional matters. Paternalism has impeded the teaching profession. Most teachers are continually having something done for them or to them. This is demeaning. We will no longer accept the role of the hired hand. If we're to accomplish the results of a profession, we must be delegated the right to be professional.

Developing a sophisticated approach to governing a profession is a complex process which can be greatly enhanced by activities at the local level. Many types of professional standards could be (and are being) written into negotiation contracts. For example, contractual employment policies could deal with the institutions that prepare beginning teachers. Obviously, when beginning teachers are employed, the teacher preparation institution has been given tacit approval by someone. The most effective procedure would be for teachers to have the right to accredit preparation institutions, but this right can also be undergirded at the local level.

The NEA is compiling suggested procedures and items in the standards area which might be negotiated at the local level and this is being done by working with persons directly involved in such negotiations.

Teachers are acutely aware of the demands for education reform. And although I don't wish to be accused of reading a book and surrendering to it, I do wish to commend to your attention *Crisis in the Classroom* by Charles E. Silberman. Silberman is a constructive critic who avoids cynicism and carping. Above all, he has discovered hope for us and the public schools. His book constitutes a realistic context for thinking about both the needed educational reform and a viable self-governance for the teaching profession.

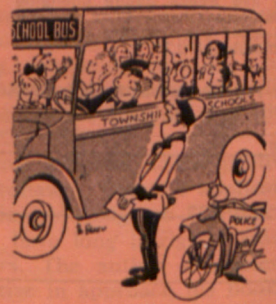
Silberman says: "What I hope distinguishes my indictment of public schools from that of other critics is an empathy for the far greater number of teachers who work hard and long at one of the most difficult and exacting of jobs, but who are defeated by institutions which victimize them no less than their students."

Quite probably being "victimized" by institutions is what young people mean when they sneer at what they call "the system."

Surely, it behooves us who are teachers to heed the message and begin to recognize that our needs may sometimes be in conflict with those perceived by state or local boards of education.

What often baffles teachers is the obvious distrust implicit in excluding them from parity in professional matters that most directly affect their opportunity to do their best for children. Teachers want to help improve and reform education, but they cannot do so from an advisory posture. They must be directly responsible in matters of governance.

The NEA has launched a major thrust to ultimately obtain the legal right of professional self-governance throughout the land. When we do, we will be able to improve the quality of teaching and the quality of education. □



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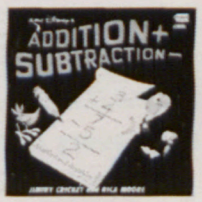

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